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FOR TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

VOLUME XLVII, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1956

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As the Editor Sees It

Is teaching a profession? It is according to the dictionary, which defines a profession as an occupation requiring an education. A teacher therefore may consider himself as a professional person, entitled to the respect, the prestige and the special consideration that society reserves for the professions. He can place himself with authority with the other professional groups: physicians, ministers, authors, scientists and engineers, lawyers and the higher echelons of career public servants. True, his status may be at or near the foot of this hierarchy, but nevertheless he belongs, according to the dictionary. The question is, does he also belong according to the facts?

To answer this, we must examine some of the characteristics of a profession. Besides the basic educational requirement, there are several less tangible factors that are usually associated with the learned professions. One is the continuous drive for self-improvement, through further study and by mutual exchange of ideas. Professional journals and books, meetings, graduate courses and original work are commonplace among truly professional people. In most instances they derive from intellectual curiosity rather than from an expectation of pecuniary gain. Another characteristic is a strong sense of social service, of being called to duty to help humanity, even beyond the normal requirements of the work. Overtime pay is not common in professional circles. Nor is a "job analysis" usually practicable for a profession. Its obligations may range far afield from the ordinary routine and must be accepted without the recourse to the union workman's watchword: "That's not my job."

The acceptance of responsibility, and independence of judgment and action are characteristics of the professions. The physician must diagnose and prescribe as he thinks right; the minister must advise and exhort as he sees truth; the lawyer must counsel and interpret to his clients what he feels is for their good. In each case the professional man's reputation must rest upon the soundness and courage of his convictions. There is no one else to tell

him what to do or to whom he can pass his responsibility.

Mankind has always looked up to the professional man as its source of knowledge, of help, and of wisdom. When men are in trouble, they turn to their priest, their physician, their lawyer, or to the writer who will aid and comfort them. The professions are the shield and buckler of the people in their struggle with life. This is true in spite of the fact that there have been betrayers of the faith in all professions—quacks and shysters who put personal gain ahead of duty.

There seems to be no reason why the teacher cannot qualify as a true professional by the characteristics described. Although he is salaried, and assigned certain duties, yet his independence of judgment and authority are broad in scope. Academic freedom is a cherished right. He has in his hands the power to mold the thinking of hundreds of young people, whether for good or ill. The teacher has every opportunity to assume professional rank. All that is needed is a professional outlook.

There are teachers who do not seem to have decided whether they want to be members of a profession, or merely salaried employees, like bookkeepers or salesmen. Such teachers meet their classes, study halls and clubs, do the required teaching and doff all interest in their jobs when the final gong sounds. They attend no conferences, join no organizations (except perhaps a union), and give no spontaneous help to the student who needs it. They take all sick leaves, complain at any added duty, and ask extra pay for it. They are present at all salary meetings, and absent from meetings for curriculum improvement.

We do not believe that there are many such teachers, but every school system has a few. It is because they, like quack doctors and corrupt lawyers, are only a small minority, that teaching can truly be called a profession. It is the business of all of us to keep it that way, and to do what we can to eliminate the pseudo-professional from our ranks. Teaching deserves to be one of the noblest of professions, and only professional people should be in it.

Historical Values in a Sixth Grade Social Studies Unit

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It must be a rare curriculum today that does not include something in the nature of what is called social studies, social sciences, or social living. This combined course of study is by now pretty nearly a classic of education, and the various types of curriculum differ only as to what may be included and the degree of emphasis given the different components of the course.¹ With the exception of a small minority who would return to a completely departmentalized plan of study, most educators consider this fusion of courses not only useful but essential. It is the "heart" or the "core" of the curriculum.²

The subject of history is almost invariably included in the social studies course; that is, it is rarely given a separate position in the curriculum. Its inclusion, however, is a source of disagreement among those who plan the curriculum. It has been given every degree of importance, from the one extreme of those who see little need for *any* history except as incidental to other studies, to the other of those specialists who deplore its subordination to the combined course.³

It is not the purpose of this paper to consider the merits of the study of history for its own sake, though it should perhaps be stated that the true study of history is not a mere collection of facts but includes "interpretations resulting in meanings that will throw light on problems confronting the student and the society in which he lives."⁴

Charles F. Arrowood writes that the peculiar role of history is "not to recapitulate or to extol the past, but to reconstitute and reconstruct attitudes and ideas which are products of past events, the purpose being to produce among men a basis for mutual understanding,

for communication, and so for common wealth of social aims and for cooperation in achieving them."⁵

It does not seem possible that anyone would deny the right of the child to some knowledge and understanding of our common heritage from the past. There are those, however, more concerned with "contemporaneity,"⁶ who seem to feel that the study of history is a waste of time better spent on more immediate, more functional pursuits.

Remembering that the information presented in the study of "Ancient Times and the Middle Ages" is largely personal culture or "deadwood," the fact that 44 per cent of the school year is devoted to these periods is distressing.⁷

It is to this concept that I take exception. One of the aims and techniques of the social studies course is that the teacher shall work through the child's immediate interest and, deliberately and with foresight, shall bring into his ken many other phases of interest and instruction. It is my belief, based on observation, that whether or not history is brought into the classroom curriculum as the result of other interest, the study of history can be the impetus for much more of learning. With even a minimum of guidance, at least by the sixth grade, the study of history in a reasonably alert class can be the springboard to many and various interests, to learning that may be of great practical value over and beyond the purely intellectual or cultural gains of history, *per se*.

Surely, the purpose of combining several subjects into one course of study fundamentally is to make for more effective teaching, and the long-range goals are to contribute to the development of the child, to his socialization, to his

understanding of and adjustment to his own culture. That method is best which most effectively achieves the desired goals, both immediate and future. In the social living course, an effort is made to coordinate various studies by means of the unit of study. It is my belief that, by and large, in most units history serves as the most stimulating starting point.

This may be the most invariably true at the sixth grade level, the one with which I am most familiar. Certainly, in several classes at this level, I have seen enthusiasm surge from interest in history and carry the class into many interests and projects, in the course of which much has been learned besides history. Children at this age should be, and usually are, still eager and curious; their imaginations are easily caught and their interest aroused. And yet they are becoming capable of some comprehension of ideas beyond their immediate experience, and, to this extent, are ready for some of the concepts of the past.⁸

The area of history covered in the sixth grade—that of the Mediterranean countries—is particularly suited both to intrigue their natural curiosity and to serve as a starting point for a good many other ideas and areas of learning, as for instance, the sciences, astronomy, biology, geology. Because the lands around the Mediterranean stand as the cradle of civilization, their study is the most ideally provocative of interest in the beginnings of man, of the world, of life itself. What perceptive teacher cannot develop this interest into any number of related, or of apparently unrelated, fields?

That, of course, is the most important element—the quality of the teacher. But the strength or weakness of the entire social studies course lies in the quality of the teacher.

In no subject is the teacher of today charged with heavier responsibilities than in teaching of the social studies.⁹

Of all the subjects in the curriculum, the social studies have suffered most from poor teaching.¹⁰

Other things being equal (that is to say, assuming a basic mastery of the methodology of teaching), a good history teacher will make the best social studies teacher. As Harper implies, the good history teacher is a teacher of the social studies:

Again, no real history teacher teaches the past for its own sake and all have as their only purpose the initiating of the student into his cultural, political, and economic heritage. The aim of all successful teachers of history for more than a generation has been to give the child an understanding of the contemporary civilization by seeing how it has been developed.¹¹

The social studies course which starts with other fields and hopes to insert something of history, more or less incidentally, may put across the other subjects, but history is bound to suffer, and little interest will be engendered for future study of history. The social studies course which emphasizes and premises its studies on the history course, with a stimulating teacher, cannot fail to make history interesting and will have no difficulty in bringing in the other subjects. Using history as the stimulus and starting point of the social studies course requires fundamentally a teacher who is genuinely interested in history. That interest alone will inspire the alert child. For those of even the most limited interests, there will be some point of contact between what does interest them and the record of the past. Vasant Coryell gives an example:

A class from a rural community might well spend its time on a study of soil erosion, better farming methods, etc. But it need not do so at the expense of the historical perspective. A history of farming methods, from the time of the early Egyptians with their irrigation problems, through the Middle Ages, to the inventions of farm machinery in modern times could be presented as a fascinating unit to even the most practical minded students. Such a unit would meet the student needs and at the same time provide the enrichment of an historical perspective.¹²

Using history as the prime element of the social studies course may seem a somewhat reactionary method of teaching, but I believe that, properly handled, it not only functions ideally as the coordinating point of the entire social studies course, but the interests of even the most modern curriculum can best be served by this method.

The new curriculum calls for many new elements to be included, many entirely new fields

or areas of learning. These are neither as simple in definition nor as clear cut as most of the subjects of longer standing. Hollis L. Caswell says:

In spite of the excellent work of our schools and the highly significant achievement of a distinctive American system, there are many points in our social life at which education is inadequate and in connection with which it appears reasonable to expect a greater contribution from the schools than is being made at present.¹³

Caswell lists a number of new requirements which are demanded of the new curriculum. These are (1) greater international understanding, (2) improved intergroup relations, (3) increased emphasis on education for family life, (4) greater understanding of American ideals and love of country, (5) conservation education, and (6) contribution to understanding of atomic energy.¹⁴

When these demands are met by inclusion in the curriculum, they will appear in the social living courses—at least at the elementary level. They can be taught directly, or they can be brought into the unit by different devices. It is my belief that they will follow most naturally, and with the greatest degree of comprehension, upon the study of history. The teacher who is enthusiastic about history and the implications of its study will find that, almost without conscious effort, he can include in its study these values and understandings.

What, after all, is more basic to "greater international understanding" than the study of nations? In the lower grades, the study of other peoples, other lands, other customs, with the merest stress on mutual similarity and differences cannot help laying the foundations for better understanding. In later study of history, the record of what nations have done, the efforts throughout history of nations to co-exist, or of nations to achieve at the others' expense, is almost a prerequisite to international understanding. In the interests of this one demand alone, it would seem that history earns its place in the curriculum. If history is the story "not of man's progress, but of man's mistakes,"¹⁵ the knowledge of those mistakes is fundamental to future progress. It has long been the hope of humanity, and by now it may mean the survival of humanity, that some solu-

tion be found to the problems of international relationships. Children who have been given some idea of the history of nations will be better prepared eventually to work toward the solution of these problems. As Albert Lynd says, "History saves time in bringing a youngster to an understanding of the present scene."¹⁶ No matter what area of history is under consideration, the opportunity is clear for the teacher to initiate, at least, a sense of responsibility as "world-minded Americans."¹⁷

The same elements in the study of history will work for the improvement of intergroup relations and interpersonal relations. The "dead-wood of personal culture" illustrates and delineates the constancy of human nature. The child who has been brought to some realization of our common humanity, who has gained some insight into the behavior and motivations of peoples of the past, cannot be lost entirely to intolerance and prejudice. The modern implications are easily demonstrated, thus making for some improvement in the quality of human relations.¹⁸ The very process of considering his own feelings and actions in the light of those of past civilizations or other races increases the child's ability to comprehend the identity of other groups and individuals. The goal is understanding, and a certain amount of knowledge is indispensable to understanding. History, properly utilized, is "an indispensable tool in the analysis and comprehension of the present."¹⁹ The improvement of intergroup relations cannot, of course, be very thoroughly achieved at any one point, but the ground work can be laid, and progress should be made throughout the entire schooling. If in the sixth grade, for example, the pupil can make any "historical identification"²⁰ with races so removed, if he can sense the human similarity in so great an unfamiliarity, if he achieves some curiosity into the why and how of those other lives, if he can see even the rudiments of a pattern of development, he is well on his way toward understanding of the individuals and groups of his own environment. This will be, of course, the achievement of a teacher who can arouse interest and enthusiasm, and, having developed the interest, we can expect the child "not only to continue to grow in the subject itself but also to take increasing interest in the solution of present-day social problems."²¹

If history is used as the heart of the social studies course, geography will not be neglected. Geography is one of the subjects most often cited by those critics of the new curriculum who feel that certain traditional subjects are neglected, and surely we must admit that it is more essential now than ever before.²² Geography is most obviously related to history, and when its study is premised on that of history, it has meaning and purpose—it is motivated. There can be nothing dull in geography when it is studied not solely as *places*, but as *places where things happened*. The real history teacher will make of the study of geography a study of the relation of man to his environment. Through the coordinated study of geography and history, man's struggle with nature becomes clearly visible, and an idea of the earth's resources follows naturally into the unit. When the eternal problem of resources is brought out, much in the motivation of men and nations is evident, and considerable understanding of history, over and beyond the "facts" of history, is made possible.

In the study of the Mediterranean countries these points can hardly escape emphasis. The study of Egypt alone offers a perfect opportunity to inquire into the efforts man has made to adjust to his environment, to cope with the elements, to conserve his resources. The teacher who finds real fascination in the record of the past cannot fail to stimulate his class to interest in them. The study of past civilizations offers a perspective that cannot be achieved in purely contemporary study of, for instance, the necessity for conservation. The whys and wherefores of the rise and the passing of these civilizations include the concepts of food supply, of the forces of nature, of geography, of men, their emotions, their needs, their desires, of social relations. History illustrates the relation between peoples and between individuals; geography, the relation between man and the universe. The coordinated study of history and geography contains the whole of the social studies—indeed, in its liberal interpretation, it is the accomplishment of the social studies.

The question of the conservation of our natural resources is a challenge to education.²³ Its implications, however, will be evident to children who are aware of man's dependence upon the products of the earth and who have

been made conscious of the results of its neglect in the past. It then becomes an important and demonstrated truth, not merely theory. When he has traced what has actually happened throughout history, the child cannot fail to recognize the need for increased attention to conservation. This may be one of the most recent demands made of education, and yet it best can be made real and convincing to the children who must deal with it in the future by a study of the past.

Other subjects of longer standing in the curriculum, such as the material sciences which may be included in the social studies program, will not be neglected by the emphasis on history. Whatever the science, from astronomy to aerodynamics, there is a point of contact with the past. Egypt, alone, is rich in possibilities for science interest,²⁴ with the time clock, the construction of the pyramids, concern with the solar system, the control of floods. It is my contention that an inspiring teacher can develop in a class an interest in history, and with that beginning as stimulus can add new interests to the child's development. That is, or should be, the goal of elementary education—not merely the exploitation of present interests.²⁵ Once the enthusiasm has been aroused, the classroom experiments in demonstrating scientific principles will illustrate and lead the child into deeper interest. The experiments themselves, however, are far less likely to arouse new interests than is the accomplishment of once awakening in the child's mind the questions as to *how* and *why*.

What child, once stirred to curiosity as to the life and ways of Egypt, for example, and its people, will not find some comprehension of astronomy essential to his understanding? At this point, then, the flexible teacher of history will produce the telescope, and a new interest has entered the horizon of the child. In this particular unit, the Mediterranean countries, we can see the social studies course at its best-conceived ideal. If it is taught by a teacher who is himself enthusiastic about the living value of history, a teacher who can make the peoples and civilizations of the past come alive, revealing their essential humanity, all else will follow. He can go on from there, to astronomy, to geography, which becomes essential to the story's unfolding, to the social problems (which may

be either demonstrated or suggested through contemporary comparison), to racial tolerance or understanding. In natural sequence will follow the problems of contemporary life, social problems, individual problems, and our immediate difficulties of international understanding, conservation of resources, maintenance of democracy and democratic living.

These are, in a sense, practical considerations. The full social studies course must also be concerned with the cultural, or perhaps less functional, considerations. Since the Mediterranean lands include Greece and Rome, we have the priceless opportunity of imparting to the child something of a heritage which has been treasured for centuries. Much of this heritage may be well beyond the understanding of the child of elementary age, but even so the teacher has a staggering responsibility, if only in a negative sense. He must make sure that any potential interest is maintained intact so that the child will not be blocked from the benefits to mind and spirit which he may gain through further study of these civilizations. The interest which the teacher arouses in this area may not show great immediate results, but it may make it possible for the child to achieve much at a later stage of development.

Still, there is much that will be within the child's comprehension. Myths, for example, are not only indispensable to an understanding of everyday allusions, on even such a mundane plane as current advertising, but a familiarity with them is stimulating to the child's imagination.²⁶ Myths can be tied in with the most immediate interests of even the most contemporary-minded child (though, as Lynd suggests, is there any other kind?).²⁷ To stretch a point, we might consider the story of Icarus. The process of integration may include the myth, current interest in aviation, the study of air currents, cloud formation, and the principles of aerodynamics. Sympathetically handled, this early concept of flying could even contribute to further understanding of an alien viewpoint.

The study of history is basically a study of development, and I have seen interest in history develop both backward and forward from any point of study. As history comes alive, the question is invariably reached—when did life begin, and how. Curiosity evolves as to the very beginnings of life, inquiries into the life and

surroundings of prehistoric man; interest reaches into geology and fossil life. Immediate activity is seen in the search for local fossil remains and rock formations. An introverted by-product of historical emphasis is seen, through the combination of history and geography, in an increased interest in the child's own environment and locality. National history is vitalized by relating it to local history.²⁸ Christopher Crittenden says that attention to local history "ably conceived and carried out, will bring about a better appreciation of what the community stands for and will make for a more intelligent facing of current local problems."²⁹

The history-centered social studies course will reach backward into the beginnings of life, into the formation of the universe, but it will also extend forward as far as the concepts of space travel (conceivable and fascinating to modern children), and to some consideration of atomic energy. The problem of motivation here is practically non-existent, but neither will it be lost by an emphasis on history. Considering the full implications, the more sound the foundation of the child as to the course of history, the better implemented he will be to consider this immeasurable influence on our civilization. Perhaps the very recognition of the transience of civilizations will impress him with the necessity for working toward the preservation of his own.

No society has been found so far in which the instructors of the young generation did not in one way or another see to it that a pride in their native group and its past was inculcated.³⁰

It is only fitting that schools supported by a democratic government support that form of government, and one of the demands required of the new curriculum is that of greater understanding of American ideals and love of country. Who can deny that this, in its highest sense, is a worthy objective? We may be apt to consider that American history particularly serves this purpose, but how much more evident it can be made to the child who has some basis for comparison. The efforts man has made toward resolving the problems of government will give more meaning to the observed results than will any dissertation, however eloquent. In the course of elementary history, some emphasis, some guided discovery of the different

achievements of the past, will make our point for us.

Art and literature are generally considered to be within the scope of the social studies course. Any real appreciation of either requires an historical background. It is not, of course, the place of the elementary school to take on much in this area, but, again, a start can be made. At any age some elevation of taste is possible—even if that consists only in producing something that can compete with the fascination of comics. Our premise serves here, too. If the original interest in the record of the past has been aroused, a good start has been made for future investigation and appreciation of art and literature.

I have handled sixth grade classes who have written, produced and performed plays based on historical incidents which have caught their imagination. They have created costumes and scenery according to the results of their own research. It is obvious to point out that art and English have been served, as has memory drill (may the exponents of mental discipline take note!), but we can look further. These children have produced characters of their own invention whom they can visualize as existing in another civilization and have given them the attributes and characteristics of their own thinking. Have they not, then, achieved some understanding of the bond that unites humanity regardless of its place in space or time, regardless of its customs, mores or manners?

The study of history demands research. The habit of research can be of inestimable value to the child in whom it is instilled. It will make him a better member of society in that it will help him to make more intelligent judgment on many of the problems with which he will be faced. Teachers of the elementary grades have a double responsibility. We must not fail to meet the immediate needs of our pupils, nor to help them to prepare for their practical future, but neither must we fail those who may eventually go on to higher degrees of scholarship. We must not forget that society needs scholars and scientists and that they must be well prepared. We serve society best not only by helping our children to adjust to society, but also by making very sure that we pass on unhampered any who might conceivably make a supreme contribution to society.

We do this by using every means at our command to stimulate intellectual curiosity, to formulate patterns of learning and habits of research, and, most importantly, by keeping interest and enthusiasm alive. This effort will not be wasted on those who may contribute nothing, but it might conceivably be of inestimable value to the future of mankind. The social studies teacher, and every elementary teacher, is charged with the indefinably essential responsibility of seeing that the child who passes through his hands does so with every potential of development intact. He may send him no further, but he can halt him there. He must send him on with no interest dulled, but continually inspired. One of the great contributions he can make is to make history vital and living. If he does this capably, and uses living history to bring out and vitalize the other elements, the social living course will, pragmatically, more than justify its existence.

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³ William Clark Trow, *Educational Psychology* (New York, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1950), pp. 568-569.

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⁵ Charles F. Arrowood, "For the Institution of Human Life: The Place of History in General Education," *The Educational Forum*, Vol. 16, March, 1952, pp. 261-272.

⁶ Walton E. Bean, "The Future of the Teaching of History," *The Social Studies*, Vol. 29, Nov. 1938, pp. 291-295.

⁷ Clarice J. Weeden, "Is World History Being Taught for Civic Purposes," *The Social Studies*, Vol. 33, Jan. 1942, pp. 200-205.

⁸ Edward A. Krug, *Curriculum Planning*, (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1950), p. 128.

⁹ California State Curriculum Commission, "Teachers' Guide to Child Development in the Intermediate Grades" (Sacramento, California State Department of Education, 1936), p. 14.

¹⁰ Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1952), p. 192.

¹¹ C. A. Harper, "History as a Social Study," *Education*, Vol. 57, Sept. 1937, pp. 290-297.

¹² Vansant Coryell, "New Objectives for the Social Studies," *The Social Studies*, Vol. 34, May, 1943, pp. 195-201.

¹³ Hollis L. Caswell and Associates, *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950), p. 23.

¹⁴ Caswell, *op. cit.*, pp. 23-35.

¹⁵ Roderick Peattie, *Geography in Human Destiny* (New York, George W. Stewart, Publisher, 1940), p. 392.

¹⁶ Albert Lynd, *Quackery in the Public Schools* (Boston, Little, Brown and Company, 1953), p. 60.

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The Soviet Navy; A Challenge to the Supremacy of the Seas

Part I

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"It must be recognized that free and effective access to the oceans and broad waters of the world is a natural claim for so vast a land power as the Soviet Union. I have, myself, always favored this aspiration."

—SIR WINSTON CHURCHILL

Mairin Mitchell in his book, *The Maritime History of Russia*, makes the following observation about Russia as a potential sea power.

... Russia has a greater length of coastline than any other country in the world. But her undisputed sea is that sector of the Arctic Ocean on which she has 15,000 miles of shoreline. To the Black Sea, the Caspian, the Baltic, she has never held sole title, and on the Pacific Ocean she has never been unquestioned mistress. Yet the geographical situation and the physical character of the land mass known as the U.S.S.R. makes it inevitable that Russia should not only find her way to all oceans but that her strength at sea should become considerable. . . .

From the above one can assume that the long period of Russian History has been one in which Russia has attempted to consolidate and control her great land mass. Now that the U.S.S.R. has nearly succeeded in bringing to completion

this gigantic task, Russia is looking outward to the surrounding seas. If her present plan of a world wide Communist state is to be effectively established then Russia must become mistress of the seas. She must have a naval force that can not be contested.

At present Russia has broken through the ice barriers of the Arctic; once again she is predominant on the Baltic and Black Seas. She is a potential naval threat on the Pacific. Her chances to expand on two oceans and twelve seas as an acknowledged menace has caused grave concern among high ranking officials of both the United States and British navies. Sir Winston Churchill, the famed Prime Minister of England, who is an expert on naval affairs, made the following comment:

... It must be recognized that free and effective access to the oceans and broad waters of the world is a natural claim for so vast a land power as the Soviet Union. . . .¹

Russia's expansion on the seas is not a recent development. Sir Halford MacKinder, the British geopolitician, back in 1919 referred to Europe, Asia and Africa as a world island. The heartland of this island stretched from northeast Siberia to the middle of Europe. When a great power once obtained complete control of

the heartland there was a dangerous possibility that it would advance from its interior bases and capture the coastal regions. When that was accomplished, the land power would be in a position to prove its superiority over its enemies by developing a sea power mightier than that of its opponents. The fleets of the powers outside of the heartland would no doubt fight with heroic ability but their end would be fated.²

Of course MacKinder thought Germany would be the power to control the heartland. We today realize that his theories are in substance the plan of operation which the Soviet Union has already begun to put into effect, with perhaps the slight difference that the greatest pressure from the land power is exerted from west to east rather than from northeast Siberia to central Europe.

The pressure from the east verging on the Arctic seas encroaches upon American strategic requirements in Alaska and the Aleutian Islands and in the Pacific, the islands of Japan and the Philippines. In Alaska the Bering Strait at its narrowest point is only fifty-six miles. The Alaskan Cape, Prince of Wales, and the Russian Cape, Deschniev, are separated by less than sixty miles of water. Less than nine miles of water divide Big Diomede Island (Russia) from Little Diomede (American). The natives of the area in a prophetic manner refer to Little Diomede as the "Island of Today" and Big Diomede as the "Island of Tomorrow."³ With far flung bases in all of these strategic areas, America is brought even closer to the Siberian Coast. The maritime aims of Russia therefore should be given deep consideration by those who shape U.S. naval policy, particularly now, since Russia leads the world in submarine craft.⁴

In the far East, Russia can become a maritime power of the first rank. In that area today she has a naval base at Port Arthur, the use of Dalny as a free port and the southern part of Sakhalin. She has access to all the sea ports of Communist China and to all those in the northern portion of the Korean peninsula. The potential strength of the Soviet Union pitted against the United States in this area of the Pacific is a factor, that from this time on, will determine the course of world history.

The Aleutian Islands form an almost continuous chain with the Russian Kommandorski

Islands. These islands both for Russia and the United States are valuable as offensive and defensive outposts. In the event of a clash between the U.S.S.R. and the U.S.A., the American naval base on Unalaska Island, Dutch Harbor, lies in a zone where the Arctic and North Pacific fronts meet. All of these islands have inlets which will make excellent bases for submarines to carry out their underwater operations.

As early as 1904, Alfred Rambaud in a book entitled *The Expansion of Russia* affirmed:

... The policy of Russia is to secure the full attainment of what she has been striving after for centuries in her onward march through the Siberian Wilds, that is, access to seas free from ice, where her fleets of war and commerce may have unhindered course....⁵

Fifty-six years prior to this acknowledgment, Alexis de Tocqueville, the French nobleman who came to the United States to study the penitentiary system but who stayed on longer to study the political and social life of the Republic, remarked that America and Russia are two great nations which seem to tend towards the same end, although they start from different points. Each of them seems to be marked by the will of Heaven to sway the destinies of half the globe.⁶

One might consider the last few lines of Bernard Pares' *History of Russia*. He said "One thing seems to me quite clear, that there is no surer road back to World Revolution than a third world war between America and Russia, a war in which all the geographical advantages are with Russia."⁷

The Historical Pattern of Russia's Naval Designs on the Black Sea, the Caspian Sea, the Sea of Azov and the Mediterranean

If the early centuries of Russia's history were ones in which she was consolidating her great land mass, her ultimate objective even during those remote times extended to the control of the seas. Before this could be achieved, however, the vast network of rivers and inland seas had to be united around the city of Kiev. The rivers were the main roads of commerce and communication. It was through such streams as the Volga and the Dvina that the boats of ancient times first came to the Black and Caspian Seas.

Russia's expansion to the sea might traditionally date back to the fearless adventurer Igor who in 941 A.D. led a naval force of oar propelled craft against the Byzantine capital, Constantinople. This first venture met with disaster when the Byzantine Navy met the Russian attack with sheets of Greek fire.⁸ Only a few of the vessels returned to Russia. A second expedition set out in 944 A.D. but Igor, doubting his ability to take the city, concluded a treaty. Since that time the chief maritime objective of Russia has been to dominate Constantinople. This port on the straits of the Bosphorus would not only allow Russia to completely control the Black Sea but would be the gateway enabling her to enter the Aegean and dominate the eastern Mediterranean.⁹

The father of the Russian Navy was that notable and powerful Czar, Peter I. During Peter's reign the Baltic was closed to Russia by the land and sea forces of mighty Sweden. The Black and Caspian Seas remained and were of strategic importance to Peter, not only as a means of tapping the rich resources of the Orient, but of enabling Russia to expand in her natural but destined course to the heartland of the East. As long as the Turks and Tartars inhabited the area of the Steppes, the two seas were possessions of dubious value. A fleet must be built which could not only control the seas but keep down possible insurrection in the Steppes.

Peter's first attempt to take Azov, the chief Turkish fortress in these regions, by water was a miserable failure. Immediately upon his return he set to work to build a fleet that was to be the basis of the Imperial Russian Navy. Two warships, twenty-three galleys, four fireships and numerous small craft were the results of his labors. By the middle of April 1695, his fleet sailed for Azov, Peter himself commanding a section of the galley flotilla. The operation was successful. The Turks were prevented from relieving Azov and a new port Tagenrog was established at the head of the Sea of Azov.

Peter dreamt of a formidable Russian Navy that in the East might be the equal of Britain's naval might. His efforts to gain first hand experience in seamanship, gunnery, shipbuilding and designing have been recounted in many histories. Always in his indomitable zeal to achieve he placed Russia first. His spirit was

not unlike the twentieth century Dictator of Steel who has done more than any other recent ruler to build up Russia's armies and to increase her strength on the seas. Both were equally determined to press Russia's advantages in the East.¹⁰

During the reign of the Czarina Catherine II, the eastward designs of Russia were renewed when the Imperial Navy in 1770 entered the Mediterranean to deal a decisive blow against the Turks. The entry of the Russian fleet into the Great Sea could not have been accomplished without the aid of England. France, Prussia and Austria were alarmed. The three powers violently accused England of imperiling Western Europe by bringing the Russian Bear to the anchorage before Constantinople.

Despite the fact that the Russian Fleet Commander Admiral Orloff thought that his own navy was not worth "a pinch of salt," fourteen Turkish battleships were destroyed. The two Turkish wars of 1768-74 and 1787-89 enabled Russia to establish herself on the Sea of Azov and in the Crimea. The Russian boundary now extended along the Black Sea to the Dniester River.

Russian expansion into the Straits of the Bosphorus was temporarily checked by the death of the Empress Catherine. For many years afterward Russia's ambitions to gain a foothold in the Mediterranean were regarded with grave suspicion by Austria, Prussia and England. In 1798 when Napoleon began his Egyptian campaign, Russia became allied with Turkey. Under the terms of the Alliance, Russia's Black Sea Squadron was permitted to sail through the Dardanelles while the straits were closed to other powers. Admiral Horatio Nelson, commanding the British Fleet, suspected the motives of the Russians. It seemed to him that Russian ships of war had entered the Mediterranean for other purposes than merely to fight the French.¹¹

Nelson's opinion was confirmed when the Russian Admiral Feodor Ushakov captured Corfu in 1799. When the Russian fleet took over Montenegro as a protectorate and later clearly indicated designs on the Island of Malta, Nelson intervened with a strong British fleet and in the year 1800 took that island for Britain.¹²

Russia's covetousness did not cease as the

years passed. In 1850 Britain declined a proposal made by Czar Nicholas I for joint ownership of Constantinople. Fear of Russian predatory motives on the Mediterranean was partially the reason for Britain annexing the island of Cyprus in the year 1878.¹³

In the last years of Czarist rule when a shaky Duma was attempting to hold back the tide of overwhelming revolt the maritime aims of Russia in the Bosphorus were still upheld as positive policy. In 1915 Alexander Feodorovitch Trepoff, prime minister of Nicholas II, declared that:

... For more than a thousand years Russia has been reaching southward for a free outlet on the open sea; this age long dream cherished in the hearts of the Russian people is now ready for realization....¹⁴

The Russian Revolution sealed the doom of the Imperial Navy. Constantinople remained safe and secure.

After World War I, Secretary of State Charles Evans Hughes announced that the policy of the United States in regard to the straits of the Dardanelles would be to safeguard trade and commerce of all nations. Along with Great Britain the United States recognized the danger of a Russian monopoly and thought that "no solution that set up an artificial barrier between Russia and the open sea could hope to achieve permanency."¹⁵

Before Russia broke with Germany during World War II, she was dickering with the Axis powers for the right of unrestricted passage of her navy through the straits of the Dardanelles. At Potsdam in 1945 the Soviet Union brazenly demanded bases on the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles and the right to share in the defenses of the Straits. When she was turned down she began to move subtly through her Albanian allies to control Greece. Thus she would be in a position to take and control the Aegean and the whole area of the straits. Her plans were upset with the enunciation of the Truman Doctrine in 1947.¹⁶

In the Mediterranean Russia was not less demanding. At the Potsdam Conference the Soviet Union pressed for a naval and an air base at Tripoli. The Russian foreign minister Molotov recommended that Tripolitania should be governed by an advisory commission having

a Russian administrator. Molotov also urged the council to provide bases in the Mediterranean for the use of Russian merchant ships. While the Russian minister was decrying the need for bases on the Mediterranean the Soviet Union was dealing secretly with Yugoslavia for an Adriatic outlet on the Mediterranean Sea. For this reason alone Russia backed up Yugoslavia in demanding the city of Trieste.¹⁷

Russia actually gained an outlet on the Mediterranean in 1948. The locale is the island of Saseno, guarded by the port of Valona. Saseno consists of two-and-one-half miles of rocky cliff rising abruptly from the sea to heights of over a thousand feet.¹⁸

The strategic advantages of Saseno are manifested in its numerous caves which are reported to be equipped to maintain substantial numbers of troops and stores. Many of the caves opening into the sea may be used for submarines. The Soviet Union needs only one good base upon the Mediterranean to launch her underwater craft.

In addition to the threat of an undersea base, Saseno offers advantages to aircraft and guided missiles. It is within rocket range of the Straits of Otranto, the narrow entrance to the Adriatic. Italy's port of Taranto could also be hit by missiles and atomic shells fired from the cliffs of Saseno.

At the present time Russia is prevented from fully developing her plans by anti-Communist Greece and hostile Yugoslavia. Saseno may well be the springboard of possible Communist aggression in the Mediterranean when the time is ripe for such an occasion.

Eastward into the Heartland

It is difficult to determine the beginning of Russian expansion into the Far East. In the middle 17th Century we know that Russian settlements had been established north of the Amur river. The regent Sophia in 1689 concluded the first Russo-Chinese Treaty. Under her decree the settlers were ordered to withdraw from this area and attempts at colonization were abandoned. The oriental ambitions of Peter the Great have already been stated. The real impetus to Russia's plans of expansion to the East in the mid-19th Century resulted from the Treaty of Paris in 1856.

The end of the Crimean War found Russia

blocked in the Middle East. The peace treaty declared the Black Sea to be neutral. No warships were to sail on it and no arsenals or fortresses were to be constructed on its shores. Turkey was guaranteed protection by the strong victorious allied powers. It may have been the frustrated hopes of Russia in the Near East which caused her to turn her attention to the Far East. But the policy of manifest destiny for Russia always lay in this direction. It was perfectly natural for her to resume this policy.

The great expansionist of the mid-19th Century was Count Nikolai Muraviev. By the order of Czar Nicholas I he was made military governor of Siberia. While in this cold wasteland his accomplishments were numerous. In 1858 through a military campaign in which his chief weapon was diplomacy, he was successful in getting for Russia all of the territory of China north of the Amur River. The Treaty of Aigun declared the Amur to be the new border between Russia and China.¹⁹

This territory extended to the port of Vladivostok on the Pacific. In 1860 this whole area was formally ceded to Russia under the terms of the Peking Treaty. In addition Russia laid claim to and seized the area between Suifun and the Tumen rivers including the excellent harbor in Poseta Bay. Russia's territory now extended to the borders of Korea. F. H. Skrine in his book *The Extension of Russia* stated that Muraviev "had laid a solid foundation for an empire in the East which in the twentieth century will revolutionize the Asiatic continent."

Having acquired the land, Russia's attention turned to the sea. Under the Cassini Convention of 1895 she demanded an ice free port on the Pacific. The Li-Lobanov secret treaty of 1896 enabled Russian ships of war to use Chinese ports. In 1898 a subsequent convention permitted the newly leased Port Arthur to be used only by Russian and Chinese vessels. In time to come even the Chinese were prevented from bringing warships into the port. The British in 1898 complained that "the Russians have induced us to leave Port Arthur" and "have forced us to make Dairen a free port and are ousting us from influence in Korea."²⁰

Russia's gains were consolidated upon the completion of the Chinese Eastern Railroad

which extended through the provinces of the Amur to Vladivostok. By 1898 permission was obtained from the Manchu government to extend the line southward to connect Harbin with Port Arthur and Dairen. With the laying of the last tie of the Trans-Siberan railroad in 1902 Russia's strength in the Far East had doubled.

She now dominated Japan through the port of Vladivostok. She held Port Arthur, an ice free port. She controlled the islands of the Sakhalin and the peninsula of Korea. The port of Dairen enabled her to be near the trading ports of Hong Kong, Shanghai, and Newchwang. But the glorious expansionist bubble was soon to burst with the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War, 1904-05.

In that struggle between the two major powers in the East, Russia's losses were immense. The Russian Baltic fleet, after having nearly shot themselves to pieces in the English Channel, mistaking English fishing smacks for vessels of war, steamed into Japanese waters only to be destroyed in the battle of Tsushima. The Far Eastern fleet lost two battleships and one cruiser. On land Russia fared even worse. Reverse after reverse on the field of battle made Czar Nicholas II willing to listen to peace suggestions from President Theodore Roosevelt.

The suggestion culminated in the famous Treaty of Portsmouth. The provisions of this treaty sealed the doom of Russia's naval ambitions in the Pacific. Russia lost the southern half of Sakhalin. She lost Korea. Port Arthur, Dairen and that portion of the Chinese Eastern Railroad connecting Tashikcha to the treaty port of Newchwang were lost to Japan.²¹

Russia's defeat was so thorough that it was not until after World War I and the Bolshevik Revolution that the old imperialistic schemes were renewed. The approach this time was conducted in a more subtle manner. The Communists began to work underground in the remote and backward areas of inner and outer Mongolia preparing the way for the entry of elements of the Red army. In 1922 Red soldiers advanced into Khabarovsk and boldly marched up the Ussuri to Vladivostok. In the Twenties, Communist agents and sympathizers began to participate in anti-British movements in the Chinese coastal cities of Canton and Hangchow where they actually helped to drill the national-

ist troops of General Chiang Kai-Shek. The U.S.S.R. expressed an active interest in the development of the Chinese Republic, not so much from reasons of philanthropy but because of an unrequited urge to regain an indomitable position on the Pacific.

The movement toward the East was carefully maneuvered by Vladimir Lenin. The Soviet dictator sought to regain the heartland by inciting local and nationalist movements among the depressed peoples of the Mongolias and China. His purpose was to drive a wedge between the Chinese people and the capitalistic countries of France, Holland, England and the United States. He looked forward to the time when all of Asia would come under the Communist orbit when he declared that "Our destiny lies in the East."

Lenin's prophetic remarks were realized at the Yalta Conference. Through an executive agreement between President Franklin D. Roosevelt and Joseph Stalin all the territory of the Far East which Russia had lost in the Russo-Japanese war was restored in full.²² Secretary of State Cordell Hull stated that Stalin had not sought these concessions, his promise to participate in the war with Japan was unsolicited and he asked no favors. Prime Minister Winston Churchill passed over the agreement lightly with the remark that this was strictly an affair between the United States and Russia and that Great Britain did not feel compelled to intervene.²⁴ Former Ambassador George F. Kennan stated that Russia would have grabbed these areas anyway whether we approved or disapproved.²⁵ This would seem to be in keeping with Russia's long desire to dominate the Far East.

William C. Bullitt sums up the consequences in his book *How We Won the War and Lost the Peace*. He declared that "we paid Stalin the railroads and ports of Manchuria to do just the thing that was contrary to our vital interests." The test of a trying war in Korea and present defeat in Indo-China has borne out his statement.

Today Vladivostok controls the Sea of Japan. Petropavlovsk lies astride the great circle routes to Japan and the Philippine Islands. Russia obtained the Kurile Islands which makes it possible for her to maintain communications with her strong naval base at Petropavlovsk. The

island Sakhalin was restored to her and Kamchatka which acts as a defense for Sakhalin. At the ice free port of Okha in northern Sakhalin the oil wells are of extreme importance for the operation of Russia's Pacific fleet.²⁶

Since the Moscow-Peiping Alliance of February 16, 1950, Russia has demanded and been granted full control of seven Yellow Sea ports including Port Arthur and Dairen. She has secured special rights in Chingwangtao, Haichow, Chefoo, Weihaiwei and Tsingtao.

Historians of the future might well say, excepting of course in the noble defense of the homeland, Mother Russia, that never in a single major war has one nation done so little and yet gained so much.

The Imperial Russian Navy of World War I bows out and is replaced by the Navy of the U.S.S.R.

World War I found Russia unprepared in naval strength. Her navy by 1914 had hardly recovered from the severe jolt dealt it by the Japanese in 1904-05. When the fighting commenced Russia had a total tonnage of 400,000 tons afloat in both the Black and Baltic seas. Among the warring powers she ranked eighth in naval might trailing behind Italy and Austria-Hungary. So shorthanded was Russia in ships that when Russia and Japan became allies Russian troops were transported from Dairen to the Western Front in Japanese vessels.²⁷

The two theatres of operation in which the Russian navy participated were the Baltic and Black seas. The Baltic fleet was hampered in its operations because it was under the command of a soldier, the Grand Duke Nicholas. This, however, was consistent with the tendency to subordinate the navy to the army, a procedure which has been detrimental to Russia in two of the three major wars in which she has been engaged since 1900. In World War I, though, the policy may have been beneficial to Russia. When the Russian armies began to retreat to a new frontier at Duna the Gulf of Riga became Russia's first line of defense.²⁸ The later period of the war was concentrated in this region where British undersea craft and Russian surface ships maintained a stubborn resistance. Had the enemy pierced the line and forced the

Russian army back, the strong arm of the fleet would have been indispensable.

The Black Sea fleet had a different task before it. It ruled its own waters and was committed to prevent the enemy from using the Black Sea as a means of communication. The fleet was successful in this mission and besides fulfilling it, acted as a support for the right flank of the Caucasian army.²⁹

Whether the two fleets served their purpose completely is difficult to determine, for the navy of Imperial Russia literally disintegrated during the Revolution of 1917. Many of the ships of both fleets were sunk by the order of their commanders to keep them from falling into the hands of both the Germans and the revolutionists. Some were destroyed by the authority of the Bolshevik government in compliance with the separate treaty with Germany, Brest-Litovsk. Battleships, oil driven destroyers and submarine chasers were among the many vessels included in this mass scuttling.

Order and discipline vanished. Crews mutinied, killed their officers and took over the command of the ships. Safes on ships were burgled and the officers' quarters looted of silver plate, forks, spoons, watches, jewelry and cash. Seamen abandoned their ships to join in the Revolution. Officers who survived the immediate outbreak served long sentences in filthy, vermin-infested prisons or were given mock trials and shot.

A Russian naval officer, Commander H. Graf, who lived to write in exile an account of this confusing and chaotic time, sealed the epitaph of the Imperial navy when he wrote that the Saint Andrews flag which once waved above the mast of the flag ship of Peter the Great was no more. "Where it once waved, now the red flag flies. It has the color of blood, of civil strife, of war, of torture and treachery."³⁰

The Growth of the Soviet Navy since World War I

Salvaged from the Russian Revolution were four battleships of Italian design and a group of French, planned destroyers which were in the process of construction during the early years of World War I. With some smaller craft also salvaged by the Soviets, the beginning of a new Red Navy was prepared.

In the mid 1920's three cruisers of a very poor quality were added to the Soviet fleet.

Seventeen obsolete 1914 destroyers were reconditioned. The build-up was as yet exceedingly slow.

Under the Soviet five year plan which began to become effective in 1929, submarines were added to the slowly growing fleet. The submarines were of two types, a short *Molodki* type, 215 tons surface displacement with two eighteen-inch torpedo tubes, and a group of larger vessels of 800-1000 tons displacement. Most of the submarines were of native design. A great many, however, were mere duplications of British submarines.

In the middle 30's fifteen heavy destroyers of the French *Le Fantasque* class were added. They were useful in work pertaining to the fleet but were lacking in anti-aircraft guns. A number of Italian ships of a squat superstructure and a light build were introduced into the Soviet fleet at this same time.³¹

The largest ship to be built in this decade was the *Kirov*, an 8,800 ton cruiser mounting nine 7.1 inch guns.³² By 1942 there were two ships, the *Maxim Gorki* and the *Molotov* of the *Kirov* class, completed.

A development during the 30's which affected the growth of the Soviet Navy was the construction of a canal which connected the White Sea with the Baltic through Lake Ladoga. This project originated in the mind of Peter the Great but was completed as a military waterway under Stalin. In the spring of 1933 units of the Baltic fleet steamed through the canal into the White Sea. Today it is possible for naval craft to leave the White Sea, follow the Shijnia Vyg and the Povenchanka rivers to Lake Ladoga and thence into Leningrad.

Not to be minimized in importance was the opening of the northeast passage. In 1932 a Professor Snidt in the ice breaker *Sibiriakov* sailed from Murmansk to Vladivostok. True, it was a hazardous journey. At one stage of the voyage every blade of the propeller was broken and sails had to be hoisted to bring the vessel to its destination. The experimental voyage did prove that the northeast passage in times of emergency could be used to unite the Baltic and the Far Eastern fleets. During World War II the Germans were reported to have sent an auxiliary cruiser, the *Komet*, through this water-way to a port in Japan.³³

Jane's Fighting Ships for the year 1944-45

stated that most of the Soviet Fleet based in Vladivostok was believed to have proceeded to that port by the northeast passage. A report since World War II revealed that one hundred cargo vessels and thirteen ice breakers have used this route.

Between the two world wars Russia renewed her old imperialistic ambitions and as in former times her course was directed towards the East.

EDITOR'S NOTE: The second part of this article will appear next month.

¹ Mairin Mitchell, *The Maritime History of Russia* (London: Sedgwick and Jackson Ltd., 1949), p. 6.

² *Ibid.*, p. 7.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

⁵ Alfred Rambaud, *The Expansion of Russia* (New York: Scott Thaw Co., 1904), p. 135.

⁶ Alexis de Tocqueville, *Democracy in America* (New York: P. F. Collier and Son, 1900), pp. 441-442.

⁷ Bernard Pares, *A History of Russia* (New York: Alfred Knopf, 1947), p. 547.

⁸ Edward Gibbon *The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1851), Vol. V, p. 435.

⁹ Pares *op. cit.*, p. 25.

¹⁰ S. A. Chistyakov, *History of Peter the Great* (St. Petersburg, Russia; 1903).

¹¹ Mairin Mitchell *The Maritime History of Russia* (London: Sedgwick and Jackson Ltd., 1949), pp. 113-122.

¹² *Ibid.*

¹³ *Ibid.*

¹⁴ Isaac Don Levins "The Political Upheaval in Russia" *Current History*, January, 1917, (New York: New York Times Company, 1917).

¹⁵ William Appleman Williams *American Russian Relations 1781-1947* (New York: Rinehart and Company, 1952), p. 199.

¹⁶ Lieutenant Thaddeus Tuleja "The Historic Pattern of Russian Naval Policy" *U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings* July 1951.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁸ Erwin C. Lessner, "Russia's Secret Gibraltar" *Harper's Magazine* September 1949.

¹⁹ Pares *op. cit.*, p. 375.

²⁰ Mitchell, *op. cit.*, pp. 171-172.

²¹ Thomas A. Bailey *America Faces Russia* (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1950), pp. 202-203.

²² Samuel Flagg Bemis *The United States as a World Power* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1950), p. 423.

²³ George Creel *Russia's Race for Asia*, pp. 124-125.

²⁴ Sir Winston Churchill "Triumph and Tragedy" *Life* November 9, 1953.

²⁵ George F. Kennan *American Diplomacy, 1900-1950* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951), p. 84.

²⁶ Frank Ulig, Jr., "The Treat of the Soviet Navy" *Foreign Affairs*, April 7, 1952.

²⁷ Lieutenant Thaddeus Tuleja in an excellent article "The Historic Pattern of Russian Naval Policy" *U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, July, 1951, gives detailed information on the capital ships afloat and under construction as well as a general description of cruisers, destroyers and smaller craft.

²⁸ Mairin Mitchell *The Maritime History of Russia* (London: Sedgwick and Jackson Ltd., 1949), p. 323.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 323.

³⁰ Commander H. Graf *The Russian Navy in War and Revolution* (Munich: R. Oldenbourg, Printer, 1923), pp. 221-222.

³¹ Further information pertaining to the ships of the Soviet Navy of the period following World War I may be found in Paul Martin's interesting article "The Russian Navy—Past, Present and Future" *U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, April, 1947.

³² Mr. Paul Martin (see footnote) explained that the peculiar character of this gun was an attempt made by the Russians to bring about a standardization of naval guns with army artillery pieces. This proved to be impractical because the ammunition was not interchangeable.

³³ Mitchell *op. cit.*, pp. 108-109.

An Exercise in Primary Sources The Teacher and the Social Studies: IX

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For three quarters of a century people have been advocating the use of primary sources in history classes at the junior and senior high school level. Numerous volumes of sources, some of them admirably suited for adolescent readers, have been prepared and have had a reasonably steady sale. Most high school libraries probably have one or more such volumes; many classroom libraries contain source collections. Yet after two decades of teaching in junior and senior high schools, working with

high school teachers on curriculum projects, visiting the classes of history teachers, and talking with them, formally as well as informally, and teaching teachers at the teacher-training level, this writer has come to the conclusion that primary sources are rarely used in our public school classrooms. Certain teachers may make use of sources, on an individual basis, and that is good. But the advantages claimed for the use of primary sources: namely, realism, a more genuine enthusiasm and interest,

and the development of critical facilities, will seldom be attained except through utilization of primary materials on a class-wide basis.

The exercise presented here, based on a collection of sources and nine questions that can be answered after reading the sources, was used by this writer in two high schools and for five consecutive years. When first used, the mimeographed material was given to the students at the conclusion of a class period. The students were merely told to be ready to answer the questions the next day. To the teacher's surprise there was neither enthusiasm nor understanding when the class next assembled.

That initial failure merely demonstrated a fact the teacher should have known: students unfamiliar with the use of primary sources and exercises that involve the use of primary sources must be motivated and prepared. After that first, and unpromising, attempt, a half-period was always spent in discussing the nature of the exercise. The students were helped to find and analyze possible answers to the first question. Then they were told to take the material home, or to study-hall, and to be prepared to answer the other eight questions the following day. The results were completely different. Even poor, and usually uninterested, students returned with enthusiasm and a readiness to participate. In fact it was not unusual to consider the remaining questions for two periods rather than one, because of the different points of view and inquiries that always arose.

Similar source problems can be developed by teachers in a great many different areas of history. If all junior and senior high school history teachers would use such source problems two or three times a year, student interest in history, understanding of history, and enthusiasm for the problems of adult citizenship would all be tremendously increased.

The source problem, exactly as it was used by this writer in two New Jersey high schools a decade or more ago, is as follows:

The Source Problem

"History is not only a body of information—it is also a way of work."

AMERICAN HISTORY

AN EXERCISE IN HISTORICAL CRITICISM

Presented here are conflicting accounts of the Battle of Lexington. They are all primary sources (what is a primary source?), yet they

do not agree. In working out the answers to the following questions, you will be doing the sort of critical thinking that historians have to do when they are writing history. Sort of like a murder mystery, with yourselves as the detectives, isn't it?

1. What time of day was the battle?
2. How many British soldiers were there?
3. What were the militia doing?
4. Who fired the first shot?
5. How many Americans were killed?
6. How many Americans were present?
7. How do we know what Captain Parker said?
8. Would such uncertainty be possible if the battle were to be fought over again at the present time? Why?
9. Are there any words whose meaning is unknown to you?

SOURCE NUMBER ONE—THE AMERICAN ACCOUNT OF THE BATTLE OF LEXINGTON: Account by the Provincial Congress at Watertown, Massachusetts, April 26, 1775. (This is the official American account. I have taken it from Commager, *Documents of American History*, p. 89.)

Watertown, April 26th, 1775.
In provincial congress of Massachusetts, to the inhabitants of Great Britain.

Friends and fellow subjects—Hostilities are at length commenced in this colony by the troops under the command of general Gage, and it being of the greatest importance, that an early, true and authentic account of this inhuman proceeding should be known to you, the congress of the colony have transmitted the same, and from want of a session of the hon. continental congress, think it proper to address you on the alarming occasion.

By the clearest depositions relative to this transaction, it will appear that on the night preceding the nineteenth of April instant, a body of the King's troops, under the command of colonel Smith, were secretly landed at Cambridge with an apparent design to take or destroy the military and other stores, provided for the defense of this colony, and deposited at Concord—that some inhabitants of the colony, on the night aforesaid, whilst travelling peacefully on the road, between Boston and Concord, were seized and greatly abused by armed men, who appeared to be officers of general Gage's

army; that the town of Lexington, by these means, was alarmed, and a company of the inhabitants mustered on the occasion—that the regular troops on their way to Concord, marched into the said town of Lexington, and the said company, on their approach, began to disperse—that, notwithstanding this, the regulars rushed on with great violence and first began hostilities, by firing on said Lexington company, whereby they killed eight, and wounded several others—that the regulars continued their fire, until those of said company, who were neither killed nor wounded, had made their escape—that colonel Smith, with the detachment then marched to Concord. . . .

These, brethren, are marks of ministerial vengeance against this colony, for refusing, with her sister colonies, a submission to slavery; but they have not yet detached us from our royal sovereign. We profess to be his loyal and dutiful subjects, and so hardly dealt with as we have been, are still ready with our lives and fortunes, to defend his person, family, crown, and dignity. Nevertheless, to the persecution and tyranny of his cruel ministry we will not tamely submit—appealing to Heaven for the justice of our cause, we determine to die or be free. . . .

By order,

JOSEPH WARREN, *President.*

SOURCE NUMBER TWO—(From the same source, page 90, I have taken the official English account of the battle—The report of Lieutenant-Colonel Smith to General Gage, April 22, 1775.)

SIR,—In obedience to your Excellency's commands, I marched on the evening of the 18th inst. with the corps of grenadiers and light infantry for Concord, to execute your Excellency's orders. . . . Notwithstanding we marched with the utmost expedition and secrecy, we found the country had intelligence or strong suspicion of our coming, and fired many signal guns, and rung the alarm bells repeatedly: . . .

I think it proper to observe, that when I had got some miles on the march from Boston, I detached six light infantry companies to march with all expedition to seize the two bridges on different roads beyond Concord. On these companies' arrival at Lexington, I understand, from the report of Major Pitcairn, who was with them, and from many officers, that they

found on a green close to the road a body of the country people drawn up in military order, with arms and accoutrements, and, as appeared after, loaded; and that they had posted some men in a dwelling and Meeting-house. Our troops advanced towards them, without any intention of injuring them, further than to inquire the reasons of their being thus assembled, and, if not satisfactory, to have secured their arms; but they in confusion went off, principally to the left, only one of them fired before he went off, and three or four more jumped over a wall and fired from behind it among the soldiers; on which the troops returned it, and killed several of them. They likewise fired on the soldiers from the Meeting and dwelling-houses. . . . Rather earlier than this, on the road, a countryman from behind a wall had snapped his piece at Lieutenants Adair and Sutherland, but it flashed and did not go off.

SOURCE NUMBER THREE—(I have taken the following account from Muzzey, *Readings in American History*, pp. 128-30. The original of this account hangs, framed, in the Hancock-Clark House in Lexington, Mass.)

On Tuesday the 18th of April, about half past 10 at Night, Lieutenant-Colonel Smith of the 10th Regiment, embarked from the Common at Boston, with the Grenadiers and Light Infantry of the troops there and landed on the opposite side, from whence he began his March towards Concord, where he was ordered to destroy a magazine of military stores, deposited there for the Use of an Army to be assembled, in Order to Act against his Majesty, and his Government. The Colonel called his Officers together and gave Orders that the Troops should not fire unless fired upon; and after marching a few miles, detached six Companies of Light Infantry under the command of Major Pitcairn, to take Possession of two Bridges on the other side of Concord. Soon after they heard many signal Guns, and the ringing of alarm Bells repeatedly, which convinced them that the Country was rising to oppose them. . . . About 3 o'clock the next Morning, the Troops being advanced within two Miles of Lexington, Intelligence was received that about Five Hundred Men in Arms, were assembled, and determined to oppose the King's Troops; and on Major Pitcairn's galloping up to the head of the advanced Companies, two Officers informed him

that a Man (advanced from those that were assembled) had presented his musquit [musket] and attempted to shoot them, but the Piece flashed in the Pan. On this the Major gave directions to the Troops to move forward, but on no Account to fire, nor even to attempt it without Orders. When they arrived at the End of the Village, they observed about 200 armed Men, drawn up on a Green, and when the Troops came within a Hundred Yards of them, they began to file off towards some Stone Walls, on their right Flank: the Light Infantry observing this, ran after them; the Major instantly called to the Soldiers not to fire, but to surround and disarm them; some of them, who had jumped over a wall, then fired four or five shots at the Troops, wounded a man of the 10th Regiment, and the Major's Horse in two Places, and at the same Time several Shots were fired from a Meeting-House on the left: Upon this, without any Order or Regularity, the Light Infantry began a scattered Fire, and killed several of the Country People; but were silenced as soon as the Authority of their Officers could make them.

SOURCE NUMBER FOUR—(Muzzey, *Readings*, p. 130)—Muzzey explains "Far different is the account in the original dispatch of the news of the battle of Lexington, sent by express riders from Watertown, Massachusetts, a few hours after the battle, and attested by patriotic committees in all the towns through which it passed to reach Philadelphia, April 24.")

Watertown

Wednesday morning, near 10 of the clock

To all friends of American liberty be it known that this Morning before break of day, a brigade consisting of about 1000 or 1200 men landed at Phip's farm at Cambridge, and marched to Lexington, where they found a company of our colony militia in arms, upon whom they fired without any provocation, and killed six men and wounded four others. By an express from Boston we find another bridge [brigade] are now upon their march from Boston, supposed to be about 1000. The bearer, Trail Bissell is charged to alarm the country quite to Connecticut, and all persons are desired to furnish him with fresh horses as they may be needed. I have spoken wth several who have seen the dead and wounded. Pray let the

Delegates from this Colony to Connecticut see this, they know Colonel Foster, of Brookfield, one of the Delegates.

J. PALMER

One of the Company of S. Y. :Safety:

SOURCE NUMBER FIVE—Muzzey, *Readings*, pp. 131-32—Muzzey writes "Anxious to prove that the British and not the Colonials fired the shot at Lexington which opened the Revolutionary War, the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts ordered many of the men who had taken part in the events of April 19 to tell their story under oath. A set of these depositions was sent to Benjamin Franklin, the Massachusetts agent in London, to be published."

Lexington, April 25, 1775

I, John Parker, of lawful age, and Commander of the Militia in Lexington, do testify and declare that on the nineteenth instant, in the morning, about one of the clock, being informed that there were a number of Regular Officers riding up and down the road, stopping and insulting people as they passed the road, and also was informed that a number of Regular Troops were on their march from *Boston*, in order to take the Province Stores at *Concord*, ordered our Militia to meet on the common in said *Lexington*, to consult what to do, and concluded not to be discovered, nor medale or make with said Regular Troops (if they should approach) unless they should insult us; and upon their sudden approach, I immediately ordered our Militia to disperse and not to fire. Immediately said Troops make their appearance and rushed furiously, fired upon and killed eight of our party, without receiving any provocation therefore from us.

JOHN PARKER

(Attested by Justices of the
Peace of Middlesex County)

SOURCE NUMBER SIX—(Muzzey, *Readings*, p. 129—taken from the *Salem Gazette* of Friday, April 21, 1775.)

[caption of the article] Bloody Butchery by the British Troops, or the Runaway Fight of the Regulars,

[The newspaper article tells of the British troops leaving Boston and continues as follows] At sunrise they observed between 30 and 40 inhabitants exercising near the Meeting-House. The Commanding Officer ordered them to lay

down their arms and disperse, which not being directly complied with he demanded them for a pack of rebels, ordered his men to fire upon them, and killed eight men on the spot, besides wounding several more.

Concluding the Exercise

Given an average or above average class, there will be many comments and questions, much discussion of terms and comparison of the various accounts. The discussion will seldom be confined to the nine questions listed above, but will veer off into the area of motives and will often deal with probabilities and possibilities. The alert teacher will find it possible to lay

the groundwork for a more critical and analytical treatment of the events that will be studied after the exercise is complete.

Frequently this writer concluded the exercise with a summing up of the entire discussion in which such questions as these were considered: How do the accounts agree? In what respects are they different? Can you see any reasons for the disagreement? Is there any reason for thinking that one account may be more trustworthy than the others? And finally, Can you reconstruct what happened, indicating those things about which we can be positive and those events or conditions that *probably*, or *may have*, happened or existed?

Fabulous Congo

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The Congo, especially the Katanga region in the southeast, is one of the world's richest producers of strategic minerals. It is the chief source of uranium for the United States and Great Britain. About 60 per cent of the Western world's supply of uranium ore is extracted from the fabulously rich Shinkolobwe mine, some 100 miles northwest of Elizabethville, according to the best obtainable information. A considerable degree of secrecy still shrouds the uranium operations. But the Union Minière has recently indicated that the production of uranium would be stepped up to meet the demands of industrial atomic research in the United States.

I was disappointed to learn that no visitors are allowed at the uranium mines in the Katanga. The best I could do was to view the various specimens of ore in the museum in Elizabethville. Pitchblende is the major source of uranium in the Congo. It is a grayish black in color, sometimes having a greenish cast. It is essentially uranium oxide and is the chief constituent in virtually all high-grade uranium ore. Uranium never occurs in its pure form in nature but is always combined with other substances to form a mineral. Over 100 uranium-

bearing minerals have been identified. In some of these, uranium forms but a minor part of the whole; in others it is the main constituent.

The Congo ranks third in the output of copper. Union Minière du Haut-Katanga, the largest of the five giant corporations which control most of the colony's capital investments, mines the richest fields of copper. I spent an afternoon with a representative of the company watching the operations of the smelting plant at the edge of Elizabethville. Here 1800 native workers, with the very minimum of white supervision, were employed in responsible positions that necessitated both skill and judgment. They operated the heavy traveling cranes that picked up the huge cauldrons of molten ore and dumped their fiery contents into molds, and they supervised the furnace heat. When the finished ingots came down the chutes, the copper was 98½ per cent pure. It awaited shipment to Belgium where it would be refined again.

Manono is the town that tin built. During World War II, when tin from the East Indies was cut off, Congo tin proved indispensable. Today, however, I was told, the tin mines of the Congo and of Ruanda-Urundi are not main-

taining the high level of production that was reached during the 1940's. Yet tin is the second most important mineral in the Katanga in respect to reserves available.

The Congo is still first in the production of industrial diamonds. The reader may be surprised to learn that nowhere in the Congo are the diamond mines in the form of underground shafts and tunnels as are the ones I visited in Kimberley or as are the gold mines of the South African Lands Company outside of Johannesburg where the mine cage took us down 4,500 feet. In the Congo, the diamonds are found in gravelly layers not more than three to 18 feet below the surface.

In addition to imports in uranium and diamonds, the United States secures annually from the colony minerals valued in excess of 50 million dollars.

The Congo has a wealth of agricultural products—palm-oil, cotton, coffee, and rubber. One of the main phases of the Decennial Plan, which was inaugurated in 1951, is the development of the textile industry. First in the categories of enterprises here is the manufacture of cotton clothing materials universally worn by the natives. I saw the Usines Textiles de Leopoldville, popularly known as Utexleo, the most important cotton mill in central Africa.

There is a tremendous building program in the Congo partly because of the construction called for in the Ten-Year Plan. Thousands of homes are being erected for the natives, and scores of factories are opening. I spent a morning among the new homes for the indigenous population in Leopoldville and an afternoon in the housing project in Usumbura. An official of the Banque du Congo Belge told me how native clerks in his bank made from 2000 to 8000 Congo francs per month (\$40-160 in U.S. currency) and rented new houses in the government housing project for as little as \$4.00 per month. The Belgian official explained how it was the aim of his government to furnish suitable housing with adequate water supply and, in some instances, electricity to all natives dwelling in the cities.

Last year two hydroelectric power stations were constructed near Leopoldville and at the Tshopo Falls on the edge of Stanleyville. Others are to be built in the area of Albertville and

Bukavu. Abundant, cheap electricity is necessary for the economic development of the colony.

Nowhere in all Africa did I see as high a living standard for the natives as in the Congo. Belgium offers full opportunity to the blacks and aims to link social development with economic growth.

Nowhere in all Africa did I find such freedom from racial tension and disturbance as in the Congo. The whites are in control in the Belgian colony. There is nothing akin to the native Mau Mau fanatics who threaten the British in Kenya or to the racial unrest in South Africa. I felt perfectly at ease as I motored alone with a native driver through the Ituri forest and as with him and the five native guides he selected I made the trek on foot deep in the jungles to visit the pygmy village of the rare elephant hunters.

There are a million native students in primary schools, more than 30,000 in secondary schools, and the first Congolese university was opened in 1954. There is also an international university under construction high on the hills overlooking Usumbura. Belgium has never favored sending natives abroad for higher education.

The government's major aim is to extend primary education to the vast majority of the natives and thus reduce illiteracy which, with the exception of disease, is the biggest problem in the colony. Perhaps not more than a fourth of the Congolese are literate at the present time. Fifteen hundred schools—secondary and technical—are scheduled for construction under the Ten-Year Plan.

Most of the education is still in the hands of the missionaries. More than one-third of the population has been converted to Christianity. Missions in the Congo are subsidized by the Belgian Government. In the year 1952 the subsidies were increased 60 per cent over those of the previous year thus giving a great stimulus to the educational program.

As yet the Congolese have neither political interest nor political consciousness. The colony has no representative institutions of its own; nobody—native or European—exercises any right of franchise. Political education is a problem that must be faced in the future.

America's Wars and Their Causes: As Seen Through the Eyes of Historians

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Despite her long isolation from the affairs of Europe, the historical record of the United States has not been a strikingly pacific one. Since declaring her independence from Great Britain in 1776 the United States has been engaged in seven major wars and such lesser conflicts as Indian wars, an undeclared war with France in 1798, and the recent "police action" in Korea. All save two of America's major wars, moreover, have been fought against European powers: two against England, two against Germany and her allies, and one against Spain. Even during the relatively peaceful 19th century, the United States was involved in three foreign wars (War of 1812, Mexican War, and Spanish-American War) and a bloody Civil War. It is also of interest to note that the United States has enjoyed the support of European allies in three of her wars (American Revolution, World Wars I and II), while hostilities were carried on alone in the remaining cases. In the War of 1812, to be sure, the United States and France faced a joint enemy in England but there was no attempt to form an alliance with Napoleon, nor was there any military collaboration.

Alone among modern nations, the United States has been successful in all of her foreign wars and even in the case of the Civil War it was the national government which triumphed. Each of these wars has exerted a profound influence upon the course of American development. The American Revolution made the United States independent of Great Britain and embarked her on a career of territorial expansion and internal growth. The War of 1812 gained for the United States the respect of Britain and of Europe and marked the beginning of an era of strong nationalistic feeling at home. As a result of the Mexican War (1846-

48) the United States acquired California and the Southwest and final recognition of her annexation of Texas. The great Civil War (1861-65) saw the end of the sectional division of the Union inherent in the slave system, gave new impetus to the nationalistic spirit, and marked the change-over from an agrarian to a primarily industrial civilization. At the close of the century, the War with Spain, coinciding with the high point of fervent nationalism at home and expansion abroad, confirmed the United States as a Great Power and established the young nation as a factor in the world balance of power. The First World War provided new evidence of America's economic and military potential while drawing a dividing line in domestic affairs between a long period of internal reform and a new period of political conservatism. The end of the Second World War, it need hardly be said, found the United States the strongest industrial and military power on earth. Her immense superiority in industrial might, only remotely challenged by the Soviet Union, has made these two powers the leading contenders for world leadership since 1945.

But what of the causes of all these wars? Why has the United States, despite her geographic separation and isolationist policies, found it necessary to fight seven times in her history? Why have Americans, who boasted that they were establishing a New World of peace and prosperity across the seas, been forced to resort to those very arms and power politics which Americans have always pretended to despise in the Old World? It is the purpose of this essay to set down the verdict of historians on these questions and to show how the historians themselves have modified their views on America's past under the pres-

sure of the ideas and circumstances of their own age.

The American Revolution

In the case of America's war for independence we have an example of historical interpretation which has come almost full cycle in the past century and a half. The early historians of the war, such as David Ramsey and John Marshall, saw the Revolution as a great patriotic and righteous struggle for self-government and economic justice against the personal evil and injustice of that hated tyrant, King George III. No individual in American history has been so roundly abused nor had so much venom and scorn heaped upon his head as the King of Great Britain who presided over the loss of the American colonies. To George Bancroft, greatest of America's patriotic historians of the 19th century, the panorama of world history was but a prelude to the grand entrance of the United States upon the stage; the American colonists were the chosen people of Europe, while the land of the Puritans was the promised land; the Revolution, of course, was the inevitable outcome of the burning desire for freedom of these liberty-loving settlers in the New World—a desire thwarted by the infamous rulers of Great Britain.

During the course of the 19th century American historians began to look deeper into the causes of the Revolution, beyond the speeches of Patrick Henry and Sam Adams, to find that the basic provocation lay not so much in the character of George III, as in the policies of Parliament with respect to American taxation and commerce. The colonists were fighting not against King George but for a great principle, the constitutional right of Englishmen to be represented in the body which was taxing them. "No taxation without representation"—this became the key to understanding the Revolution in the minds of many generations of American schoolboys. This constitutional interpretation, with variations, was generally accepted by historians at the close of the 19th century, but in our own century came a new twist in historical writing about the Revolution with the so-called economic interpretation of history. According to this view, it is economic forces and motivations which predominate in history. History is made by human beings who are in-

fluenced by money, material wealth, and the prestige and power which go with them. This school of historical interpretation gained headway in America with the publication by Charles A. Beard of his *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution* in the year 1913. Soon historians of the Revolution began to find that mercantilism, the Navigation Acts, and other British restraints on colonial commerce had much to do with instigating the Revolution. In 1776 the colonists simply burst out of the economic bonds with which Great Britain had sought to straitjacket them—this, said the economic determinists, was the true explanation of the Revolution.

From the economic interpretation of the Revolution, some historians moved further to a class interpretation. To writers of this persuasion the Revolution was the outcome of great democratizing movements with the colonies prior to the rebellion against English rule. The lower classes in America, with democratically-minded leaders like Jefferson, Adams, Paine, and Henry, were fighting the forces of entrenched privilege within the colonies long before the break with Britain. But in the quarrel over revenue and taxation with the Mother Country these radicals saw their opportunity for achieving social justice at home, which was their prime objective. These leaders regarded the Revolution as a means of throwing over not only English leadership but the colonial aristocracy allied with Great Britain as well. Recently this thesis has been rather sharply attacked. It is based at bottom on one fundamental assumption which has not as yet been proved: namely, that the leaders of this democratic movement within the colonies were the same group which fought for independence from Great Britain after 1763, and that the so-called conservatives were opposed or indifferent to the movement for independence. On careful re-examination this assumption has seemed to many scholars incapable of proof. In the work of the leading exponent of this school of interpretation, there can be found no conclusive evidence that the social and economic radicals who supposedly pushed the revolutionary movement were even in control of more than two or three of the states by 1776, when of the war. The economic determinists accused the anti-slavery party in the North of hypocrisy

hostilities had already been in progress for more than a year.

The most recent trend in the interpretation of the Revolution is back in the direction of considering the American War in its imperial setting as growing out of the great problems of colonial administration facing Britain in the 18th century, especially finding revenue to support the cost of colonies, and to defend them against foreign attacks. When the British government chose, following the French and Indian War, to tax the colonists to raise revenue for the defense of the American colonies, thus contradicting precedents established over a century and a half, and when she did this in a tactless, undiplomatic manner, the colonies were driven to a rebellion which they did not fundamentally want. Historians are again finding that the Revolution, after all, did have something to do with the principle "No taxation without representation," as the revolutionists claimed, and that hatred engendered by inept and clumsy British approaches to the colonial problem added fuel to the flames.

*The Foreign Wars of the U.S.
in the 19th Century*

In the historical treatment of the War of 1812, War with Mexico, and the Spanish-American War, we can find the same sort of metamorphosis. The early historians of these wars accepted the contemporary, patriotic version of each conflict; this view was later challenged by revisionist historians who saw the need for a radical re-interpretation of the motives behind the conflict; and then came in each case a swing back toward the original explanation of the reasons for America's involvement in war. In the case of the War of 1812, for example, President Madison's war message listed impressment of seamen, naval depredations, and the British Orders in Council, which provided the administrative sanction for interference with American vessels and trade, as the chief reasons for the declaration of war against Great Britain. This view was long accepted as the only explanation of the conflict, but in 1925 Professor Pratt demonstrated that it was the western sections of the United States, far from the sea and uninterested in naval depredations and the impressment of seamen, which voted for and supported the War of 1812, while the sea-going New Englanders pur-

sued a policy of sulking non-cooperation with Madison in prosecuting the war. These discoveries caused Pratt and others to conclude that western jingoes, anxious for new land and especially for an end to British support of Indian tribes hostile to the United States, forced the United States into a war of Canadian conquest, which had little to do with American determination to defend her neutral rights and national honor at sea. But more recently other scholars have defended the older interpretation. They point out that Pratt was quite right in emphasizing that it was the West, rather than the maritime East, which supported the War, but that he was wrong in concluding that only resentment at Britain's Indian policy and other purely western affairs explain the jingoism of the western "War Hawks." For the West too was affected by the British blockade and the seizure of American vessels, inasmuch as there was now no outlet for the agrarian produce of western states and a severe depression had in fact come to the Mississippi Valley in the years preceding the conflict. Moreover, as intense nationalists, the men of the West resented the insults to national honor implicit in the impressment of American seamen and the humiliation of commanders of American ships. Hence, once more, there has been a steady movement back in the direction of older, long established views of the causes of an American war.

The American Civil War

Even the American Civil War has not escaped the historical cycle of thesis-antithesis-synthesis. The early post-war historians, of course, interpreted the civil conflict according to their own sectional origins. Northern historians insisted that it was a moral war against slavery impelled by southern intransigence, inhumanity, and belligerence; but to southern historians it was an aggressive war by the North ostensibly to stamp out an institution which would have disappeared by itself, but actually to establish northern hegemony over the South. Gradually historians, North and South, found some degree of unity in basic underlying causes, economic, social, constitutional, and political. In the past quarter century, however, several new schools of historical interpretation have appeared which unite in dismissing slavery completely as too simple a factor, at least in its moral dimensions alone, to account for the coming

in pretending to oppose slavery for moral reasons when in reality their objective was the attainment of political ascendancy in order to fasten the stranglehold of northern capitalism upon the South. An even more recent school has stressed the idea that the Civil War was in no sense an "irrepressible conflict" on moral grounds, nor were the economic differences between the industrial North and the agrarian South great enough to explain the resort to arms. The economic differences between North and South had existed for many years, yet the Civil War came not in 1820, 1850, but in 1860—why? Because the Civil War, in the view of adherents of this new school, was the work of blundering politicians, human intransigence, and a concatenation of events around 1860. Slavery could not be considered a basic cause since the debates of the 1850's preceding the war centered not on the abolition of slavery, but rather on such "abstract" issues as fugitive slaves and the extension of slavery into new territories just being organized as states. How, therefore, could slavery itself be a basic cause? How could it be called a moral fight on the part of the North when Northerners were willing to permit slavery to remain where it already existed?

These questions have provoked a sharp reaction among other historians who still believe that moral force is a decisive factor in great historical movements. The contemporary trend in American historiography of the Civil War is to subject the revisionist thesis to increasing scrutiny and criticism. Granted that the revisionists are correct in maintaining that the extension of slavery rather than slavery itself was the central issue in 1860, it does not follow that the North was not morally aroused on the question of slavery. Indeed it was the moral urgency of the slavery question, screened from open discussion by constitutional limitations, which gave the territorial and fugitive slave questions the importance which the revisionists, not being able to understand it, have deplored as fanaticism. These were the only frontiers on which the moral conflict could be fought out. One critic of this revisionist interpretation likens slavery in the South to Nazism in Germany in the 1930's. In both cases a large segment of the American population felt

moral revulsion but were unable to interfere with what was an internal problem of another section or nation. But just as Nazism became more than an internal problem when it spilled over the borders of Poland, the Lowlands, and France, so did slavery become more than a sectional problem when it threatened to expand into the national territories. Here again the renewed emphasis on moral feeling as a cause of the conflict is another instance of historical interpretation come full-cycle, though numerous new insights have, of course, been gained in the process.

World War I and II

An examination of writing on the two world wars of the 20th century reveals the same pattern of contemporary version, radical revision, and return to a modified original interpretation. The second World War is too recent to have attracted many historians but already in the writings of Beard, Barnes, Tansill and Chamberlin can be seen the beginnings of a revisionist movement similar to that following World War I. The United States went to war, according to these historians, not because the Japanese bombed Pearl Harbor or because Germany was a menace to American democracy, but because of the betrayal of the American people by Roosevelt and his administration, who led America into a war on false pretenses, with false justification, and on a false analysis of the international situation. On the other side of the question one may consult such books as those by Rauch, Feis, Millis, Morison, Langer, Gleason, et al.

This process is all very familiar to historians. In the 1930's the same revisionist trend appeared with respect to American entry into World War I. In the writings of Millis, Tansill, Barnes, Beard (many of the names are the same), and others, Wilson took the United States into war not because of the German submarine attacks, as the President said and perhaps thought, but because of British propaganda, the allied debts owed in the United States, or the munitions trade with the Allies. This historical testimony had much to do with the Neutrality Laws of the middle 1930's which hampered America greatly in her psychological, as well as physical, preparation for her role in World War II.

But the revisionists in general are receiving less of a hearing following World War II than in the earlier period. They have convinced very few historians and not many laymen. The cool reception given the revisionists, indeed, has led one of them to charge in a widely-circulated pamphlet that there is a conspiracy among historians, publishers, newspapers, teachers, and the American Historical Association to suppress books and reviews favorable to revisionism with respect to World War II.

Such however is not the case. The coolness to revisionism has been due, not to hostility to the idea of revisionism itself, but to that extreme revision of the 1930's which caused Americans to pledge themselves not to be tricked into another war and to disarm while Hitler and Mussolini were building up their legions to attack the democracies. There will be

revisionism, of course, of the accepted interpretation of the reasons for American entry into World War II. No responsible historians would have it any other way. Historians must continue to seek to discover all the facts and interpret them as objectively as possible in order to arrive at the truth. But this time historians are tending to exercise more responsibility in their scholarly judgments, and do not fly to sensationalist interpretations which may satisfy their political predilections, their own cynical views of human nature, or their own disillusionment (intense as it is in many cases) with the results of World War II. The history of America's writing about her own wars encourages one to think in any case that in a democracy the contemporary impressions of the people as to the reasons for conflict have not been far wrong in the great majority of cases.

Geopolitics of Yugoslavia

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For most of the past seven years the Soviet press, as well as all organs of World Communism, had habitually referred to Marshal Tito of Yugoslavia by such terms as "traitor," "fascist dog," "capitalist spy," and similar epithets. But, at the end of December, 1954, one Sunday night in Moscow the highest Soviet leaders raised their glasses to toast "Comrade Tito." Moreover, the Soviet censor permitted Moscow's *New York Times* correspondent to attribute to Communist Party First Secretary Nikita S. Khrushchev the remark that "as both the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia followed the teachings of Marx and Lenin there was no need for them to disagree." When one remembers how many Communists have been executed and imprisoned the past half decade in Moscow's unrelenting war against Titoism, this turnaround is one of the most dizzying ones of those provided by the now well-known somersaults of Communist policies since the famed Stalin-Hitler Pact of 1938.

Tito was being "buttered" because he represents an important international political force which the men in the Kremlin now wish to neutralize, and thus rectify Stalin's blunder in excommunicating Tito from the Cominform camp in 1948.

Geopolitical Backbone

Geopolitically, Stalin lost the largest country in the Balkans, covering an area of 99,044 square miles (somewhat larger than the states of New York and Pennsylvania combined), and allowed a wedge to be driven between Moscow's satellites stretching between the Baltic and the Black Sea.

Like the rest of the Balkans, Yugoslavia is largely mountainous, although there are several broad plains of rich black earth, particularly in the north. More than three-fourths of the population is engaged in agriculture. The principal crops are wheat, corn, sugar beets, hemp, hops, opium (Macedonia), tobacco (Macedonia and Herzegovina), barley, beans, potatoes, flax,

clover and lucerne. Good wines come from Dalmatia and Herzegovina and along the Danube. Fruit is raised extensively especially in Serbia and Bosnia. Almost half of the peasants live in the rich wheat-growing plains of the Voivodina, Croatia and Slovenia; they despise collectivization.

Yugoslavia is rich in resources, but they need to be developed. The mountain regions are heavily wooded, making the country one of Europe's leading timber producers (beech, fir, and oak); mountain streams provide a high potential hydroelectric power, used frequently in the development of mining. Below the surface of the country are extensive deposits of at least 23 out of the 26 ores and minerals important to industry. In known deposits of bauxite, lead and antimony, Yugoslavia leads Europe; it is second in quicksilver, copper and zinc; it is third in the world as a producer of mercury. Five new coal mines are being opened in central Bosnia, thanks to postwar discoveries that had added several billions of tons of coal to the known coal reserves of Yugoslavia. Oil reserves, in the Landova oilfields, adjacent to the Hungarian border, could make the country independent of oil imports. The government faces, however, many serious problems in exploiting the new discoveries. There is the ever-existing problem of poor roads or no roads in mountain regions where the discoveries have been made. Railroads running to the few railheads in the mountains are poorly equipped.

Manufacturing is limited mostly to the production of consumers' goods. Until recently an underdeveloped country, Yugoslavia is engaged in a gigantic effort at modernization; under the Five-Year Plan, heavy industry is being created, hydro-electric stations constructed in all parts of the country, more mineral wealth exploited, and agriculture undergoing a major transformation. But like all Balkan countries, Yugoslavia is deficient in communications.

The population density is 159 per square mile. This compares with that which existed in Britain at the end of the 18th century, in Germany and Austria in the middle of their most advanced economic development, and in Hungary before World War I. This indicates that Yugoslavia is in the historical period of transition, the industrial revolution. Between the two wars, the country's population had increased

from 12 to 16 million, or by 33%; this increase is one of the highest in the world. War and, still more, guerilla warfare, starvation, diseases, persecutions, and concentration camps, had reduced the population by more than a million. But the increase of population under normal conditions was so rapid that the rate of this increase was higher than the increase of production, especially of agricultural production. This development has been expressed in the phenomenon of agricultural over-population.

The nationalistic and religious picture is quite complicated. Sufficient is it to state that the main groups—the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes—although members of the same Slav family, have had their historical and religious differences, which culminated in serious troubles during the independent Kingdom. But Tito has succeeded to a considerable degree in welding these differences by his governmental set-up. This features the federalistic system—six Republics, with executive power vested in the federal executive council of 30-45 members elected by and from the federal assembly, and presided over by the President of the Republic (Tito), elected by and responsible to the federal assembly (composed of a federal council and a council of producers). But actual control of the country remains with the Communist Party.

Strategic Aspects

The geopolitical location of Yugoslavia is due to the fact that the country sits on the line dividing Central from Eastern Europe, that it dominates the approaches to Central, Eastern, Balkan and Western Europe into the narrowing bottleneck of Europe, not to speak of the Adriatic and the Aegean Seas. In the north, Yugoslavia dominates the Danube River, which connects Central Europe with the Balkans and the Black Sea; it also dominates the Morava-Vardar Valley, which, historically, has been the goal of all invaders aiming to conquer the Balkans.

Stalin-Tito Split

Until 1948, Tito supported, unconditionally, Stalin's policies, as manifested by Yugoslav aid to anti-government Greek guerillas. But Tito had been finding out that Yugoslav's living standards were being depressed by Soviet design through a series of commercial agreements rammed down his throat in a fashion resembling the tactics of Hitler. He discovered that

Stalin's concepts of Communism, as decreed in Soviet Russia, were expected to be slavishly copied in a country with entirely different traditions and people. When he demurred, he was slapped down, and as a result there was revolt which became known as "Tito-ism." Tito was the first Communist leader of an important state to defy Moscow openly. On June 28, 1948, the Cominform denounced Tito and his followers as "opportunist," "bureaucrats," and "terrorists," who had carried out a "hateful policy" towards the U.S.S.R. despite professions of friendship. Tito immediately responded with an assertion of his complete fidelity to the Marxist-Leninist principles.

Then came American help—based on purely geopolitical grounds, a geopolitical strategy aiming to attack the Kremlin in its own backyard, and to prevent the Soviets from reaching the Adriatic and the Aegean Sea outlets. In fact, the decision to send American food to Yugoslavia at the turn of 1950-51 as an outright gift was based largely on a realistic military strategy—that Yugoslavia's army, to fight effectively, had to be fed. Additional help, under various guises, has been going to Tito ever since. Tito held the front, so to speak, in the Balkans against the Cominform and the Kremlin rulers—and is still holding it in spite of the rapprochements between Tito and Malenkov in 1954.

Wooing of Tito

In their propaganda for forming a "truly peaceful and European community," the Communist satellite press had been pouring a ceaseless stream of abuse against the "Greek Monarcho-Fascists," "the Turkish reactionaries," and "the treacherous Titoite, Fascist clique" until about 1953. These attacks were intensified with the signing of the Balkan Friendship Treaty of February 28, 1953. Then, suddenly, the Kremlin altered its strategy. The new policy was launched in September, 1953 by Bulgarian Premier Vulko Chervenkov who, in his New Course speech, expressed his desire to ease tensions in the Balkans; his bid started a series of negotiations between Bulgaria and Greece, Turkey and Yugoslavia for settlement of border and traffic problems with a view to resuming diplomatic relations. The main purpose was to throw a

monkey-wrench into the Balkan alliance—the destruction of an anti-Communist bloc by courting the members and winning them away from the Western allies.

This new "friendship policy" was reflected in an abrupt reversal of satellite propaganda technique. In Romania, for instance, the communist press and radio, prior to August 23, 1953 (the date when Premier Gheorghiu-Dej announced the Romanian New Course), had depicted Tito's Yugoslavia as a breeding ground for warmongers, plunderers, spies, saboteurs, and agents of bacteriological warfare. After August 23, little space was given to Yugoslav affairs. On August 4, 1954, at the request of Romania, the Yugoslav government consented to the reopening of railway traffic between the two countries (closed since 1950). Bulgaria signed a rail transportation agreement with Yugoslavia providing for the demarcation of the Yugoslav-Bulgarian border. Then, after a lapse of several years, Tito resumed normal diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union and such satellites as Romania, Bulgaria and Hungary. In October, 1954, Yugoslavia and Soviet Russia signed a trade agreement, ending a commercial stalemate of 6 years; Yugoslavia began to send meat, tobacco, soda, and other products to the Soviet Union in exchange for crude oil, cotton, manganese, coal, and newsprint. For the first time in years, Tito's speeches were published—respectfully—in Soviet newspapers. Tito then announced that he would welcome any gesture of good will from the Soviet Union.

Obviously, in 1954, Yugoslavia was no longer outside the Cominform bloc. But Tito failed to understand the nature of the continued suspicions of the West. In October Tito's major foreign policy address, in effect, took direct issue with President Eisenhower on the evaluation of the current Soviet policy. Tito argued that a real change had taken place in Moscow's foreign policy and that the West should take advantage of this change to work out long-range solutions of international frictions. (A week before, President Eisenhower declared that the principal factor in world affairs now "is the persistently aggressive design of Moscow and Peiping, which shows no evidence of genuine change . . .").

The Yugoslav case for normalization of relations with Soviet Russia's bloc appears clear enough to Tito. Tito's government welcomed any indication that the threat of aggression from the East had eased up. For Yugoslavia this meant, specifically, elimination of border incidents with her Cominform neighbors and the lifting of a serious economic blockade. More than any other country, Yugoslavia was isolated geographically by Stalin's "cold war." Like Western Germany, she was directly exposed to the threat of military aggression. Tito is disposed to welcome the change in the prevailing winds blowing from Moscow without relaxing his vigilance or removing his protective armor. In addition to the general benefits that recent improvements have brought there is also the promise of certain specific ones. Trade and cultural relations can now be resumed with Bulgaria, Romania, Albania and Hungary. Although most of Yugoslavia's commerce is committed to the West, Yugoslavia wants to make suitable trading arrangements with countries where transportation costs would not be so great. Furthermore, on the strictly political level, Yugoslavia's interests dictate the reopening of her former channels of influence with the neighboring Balkan countries, especially Bulgaria—to whatever extent she may be permitted to do so by Moscow.

This brings up an often-discussed Yugoslav argument for normalization of relations with the Central-Eastern-Balkan bloc. Tito feels that he can set a pertinent example to the satellites as an independent Communist-led country.

The Western Concern

As far as the Western capitals are concerned, Yugoslavia's renewed associations with Soviet Russia's bloc are all to the good—provided Yugoslavia is able to preserve her independence. But the Balkan allies of Tito (who implemented the Ankara Treaty of Friendship and Collaboration of February 28, 1953, with the military alliance, signed at Bled on August 9, 1954), and her new potential ally, Italy, across the Adriatic, have been disturbed by the rapprochement. The United States and the other Western big powers have taken a calmer view.

But it is seldom noted that the domestic situation of Yugoslavia is the real key to Tito's

willingness to get along with both sides in the cold war. Big domestic problems confront Tito—problems that were intensified while Tito's economy had to pay for taking the pro-Western side in the world struggle. Yugoslavia needs to get her economy on an even keel and to raise living standards. Prices are swinging upward this fall, a severe wheat shortage in 1954 affected the quality of bread, and there were fuel and electric power shortages.

Most of Tito's troubles stem from his attempts to make big changes in the farm and factory setup. About 80% of Yugoslavia's 17 million people make a living from farming. Though the country is rich in minerals and timber, there have not been enough factories to make use of these raw materials. After World War II, a big industrial plan was started; machinery was to come from Communist lands. But after the 1948 break, the Cominform states refused to fill the orders, and new orders had to be placed with western countries. Consequently, the government program for industry lagged.

Then there has been poor planning. Power plants are now wearing out before new ones can replace them. The power shortage is causing dim-outs in the capital and other large cities. Aluminum, copper, and steel plants in some parts of the country are not operating because of the power breakdown. The resistance of the farmers to the original plan of collectivization is now paying off in food shortages. It is true that aid from the U.S. and other Western countries has helped boost living standards; in fact, whatever the United States can do to ameliorate that position appears to weigh heavily with Tito's direction of Yugoslavia's political and military position.

Yet, since Yugoslavia broke with Soviet Russia, there has been a rise in living standards together with a slight relaxing of controls of the state machinery. Tito has been moving a trifle toward the western type of government. But Tito remains basically a Communist, whose spokesmen argue for deletion of the anti-Communist plank from future West European foreign policy developments and organization building, citing Yugoslavia as an example of "democratic socialism."

Sociology Taught by Fiction

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The problem of encouraging the pupil to utilize the knowledge that he possesses is an important one in education. The teacher must, in many cases, find a placebo for the pupil; that is, he must start on the level of the pupil and encourage him to improve.

In sociology, many excellent theories, principles, and ideas are memorized momentarily by pupils in order to answer an examination; yet, when questioned upon the meanings, or when asked to give examples of the effects of these ideas upon a culture, some of these same pupils gaze blankly at the examiner.

It would be better to show examples of sociological ideas, principles, and theories in fiction than to drill the pupils over and over in the mere recitation of facts. Science fiction is an excellent medium for the development of different types of culture, for the author is bound by nothing except logical development from a given premise.

Thorstein Veblen advocated a technocracy. Since there has been no culture that is a technocracy, what can a pupil be taught except the facts as seen by Veblen? Only a "manufactured" culture based upon this principle could be studied. In *Utopia 14* by Kurt Vonnegut, Jr. technicians have taken over and machines have been invented to do most of the work, even that of deciding justice. A revolution is planned in which the machines can be destroyed and the dignity of work offered to the populace. When it is carried out, the first thing attempted by the people is the repair of the machines.

Another book based on a theoretical technocracy is Aldous Huxley's *Brave New World*. In the culture depicted, babies are produced in

test tubes and conditioned to their positions in life by machines.

In *1984* George Orwell shows Communism, Russian style, developed to complete control. For contrast, Frederik Pohl and C. M. Kornbluth show government by capitalism in *Space Merchants*. The Senate of the United States is made up of representatives of commercial corporations, and the most important men are those who control advertising agencies, while the presidency of the United States has become hereditary and of little importance.

Ray Bradbury has shown in *Fahrenheit 451* a society in which reading is forbidden. Firemen are for the purpose of burning books. Their slogan is: "Monday burn Millay, Wednesday Whitman, Friday Faulkner, burn 'em to ashes, then burn the ashes."

This list could go on indefinitely. Nor is it confined to science fiction. If the book to be read is about people, or if the characters act as if they were people (as in *Animal Farm*) there is some culture, real or imaginary, portrayed.

The teacher must find literature pertaining to a subject of interest to the pupil. An appreciation of sociology may be more easily developed if the theories, principles, and ideas in sociology can be pointed out in this literature. Then, after seeing that these principles have actual applications, the pupil can be persuaded to read scholarly books in order to find sociological bases for other works of fiction. In this manner, the pupil can be encouraged to utilize the knowledge that he possesses and to develop new knowledge.

The Teachers' Page

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Spotlight on Education

A great deal has been said and written on education and our schools prior to the White House Conference on Education (November 28 through December 1), and a great deal more will be said and written following the Conference. An excellent analysis of "Whither Bound-Education?" appeared in the *Saturday Review*, September 10, 1955. The major portion of the discussion centered on the White House Conference and the areas with which it was to concern itself. These covered the following subjects: The Story Behind the Conference; Goals for Our Schools; Efficiency and Economy; The School Buildings We Need; to Get and Keep Good Teachers; Financing our Schools; and Federal Aid.

In addition, an editorial by Norman Cousins, entitled "Beyond the Classroom," focused attention on another serious problem: the "illiteracy" of people, who have had a "higher education," in areas of life other than their own specialty. Mr. Cousins cited three case histories—a lawyer, a doctor, and a scientist.

"If you ask him (the lawyer) about the basic differences in philosophy and ideology between the totalitarian state and the democratic state you will get no further than the bald though not bold statement that one is very bad and the other is pretty good."

The doctor "has spent so much time in mastering his profession that he has lost sight of the world of which medicine is only a part. He is not equipped to understand or deal with the relationship between society and his patient.

The scientist "knows how uranium can be converted into plutonium, and he can calculate with a high degree of accuracy the amount of heat released by the atom at a split second of fission, but what bothers him now is that in a closely related and even more important field—

the political and social and historic implications of atomic energy—he feels intellectually bankrupt."

"Judged by ordinary standards," writes Mr. Cousins, "all these men have had the advantage of higher education and yet, whether in terms of the broader needs of their professions or their own comprehension of the community-at-large, they are under-educated, under-trained, under-privileged. They have yet to pass the literacy test of the twentieth century."

This is a problem that is easily recognizable but difficult to remedy. How can American education educate the expert in any one specialty, to be also well informed in the areas concerned with the social, economic, and political aspects of American life? Mr. Cousins believes that education fails in its ultimate goals if it does not ultimately lead to what he terms the "Four P's—Preparation for Living, Preparation for Understanding, Preparation for Participation in the problems involved in the making of a better world."

Part of the answer, Mr. Cousins contends, lies in adult education—for college graduates as well as for others. The content of this education for the college graduate should enable him, first to keep up to date in his field; second, "to think and act intelligently," third, "to know how to look for and appraise information about the world of ideas and events."

Since a "back-to-school movement for the total adult population is neither likely nor possible," Mr. Cousins pins his hopes on two communication media: the book and television. Obviously, the book, as a medium for this kind of adult education, is practical only for a small percentage of the population. Even college graduates, once they have finished their formal education, find it difficult, it seems, to do much book reading. The interest frequently is not

there. For the great majority of people, the effort of reading a non-fiction book on matters removed from their own specific fields of training or interest is just too great. Television must therefore be the saving agent. "No invention in the field of communication," says Mr. Cousins, and most experts in the behavioral sciences would probably agree, "can come close to television in terms of its power and convenience." Television, as we noted in an earlier **TEACHERS' PAGE**, combines in one medium the most powerful forces of communication—vision, voice, drama, music and no need to exert oneself. But, it is not only television as it exists today, but as it can be developed by non-commercial television networks that is the answer to the problems raised above. According to Mr. Cousins; "A vast adventure in education lies before the American people. The need is defined the means are at hand, and the prospects are limitless."

Our belief is that the same exists not only for non-commercial television but also for commercial television—and much is already being accomplished in this field.

* * * * *

President Eisenhower's off-the-cuff comments several months ago, about the possible need for extending high school education another year, should raise some worthwhile discussion. The questions we would raise are: More education for whom? And, what should be taught in the extra year? With such controversial books coming off the press as Rudolf Flesch's, *Why Johnny Can't Read*, and Arthur Bestor's *The Restoration of Learning*, it is very necessary that educators and the public in general should reconsider such questions as: What are we after in public education? What goals should be the same for all boys and girls and what goals should be different? Are some of the goals we stress realistic in terms of the abilities and interests of many of our boys and girls?

Dr. Bestor, whose book is reviewed and discussed in the same issue of Saturday Review under the heading "Redeeming American Education," reiterates his earlier arguments (from *Educational Wastelands*) in behalf of teaching students to think. He again lashes out against "life-adjustment" and "vocational" education. The only worthwhile education, according to him, is the kind that trains the intellect.

What about the young people who have little potentiality with respect to having their intellects developed? Or who have the potentiality but have been conditioned against being educated?

A young woman we know, Janet, reached her sixteenth birthday last summer. Shortly afterwards she married a young man, Bill, nineteen years old. Janet began dating men when she was twelve. She started going steady with Bill when she was fourteen. Neither Janet nor Bill did well in school. The young woman's parents wanted her to finish high school, but Janet abhorred school. She "flunked" in one school and transferred to another—less academic. She did not do well there either. Janet was not dull, stupid, or feeble-minded. She just did not like school, and she wanted to get married. In order to prevent an elopement the parents finally gave their consent to the marriage. Afterwards, Janet quit school but enrolled in a private secretarial school. She is paying money for the kind of education she wants.

We do not know how the marriage will turn out, nor what progress she will make in her secretarial course. We do know that here was a girl who was repelled by the traditional type of high school curriculum. We recognize that many factors have entered into the behavior pattern of Janet, and into the anti-education pattern of thousands of other boys and girls, such as possible innate personality deficiencies, poor parental influence and guidance, and disturbing environmental out-side-the home factors. Whatever the causes, there are large numbers of boys and girls ill equipped to have their intellects trained beyond a certain level.

* * * * *

Further evidence of the nation's growing concern about high school and college education was revealed in a published interview between the editors of *United States News and World Report* and Homer and Norton Dodge who recently visited Russia and studied Russian education.¹ Much of the concern about education has been due to the reports from sources other than the Dodges that Russia is leaving the United States far behind in the education and training of engineers and scientists. Statistics published in the magazine reveal that between 1900 and the present there has been the following percentage drops of students studying

algebra, geometry and physics respectively: 56 to 24; 27 to 11; 19 to 4.31. The following excerpt from the interview is indicative of the general movement afoot today to discredit any kind of education that is not strictly training of the intellect:

Q. "Are you talking now about what they call 'progressive' education?"

A. "Yes. The trouble began when John Dewey said that not knowledge or information but self-realization is the goal of education. The educationists (distinguished from educators as being the villains) took this to mean that they were freed from the task of transmitting knowledge and proceeded to develop 'life adjustment' curricula centered on 'real-life problems, such as how to make a successful date,' instead of the three R's and other courses of substance.

"A high school education now consists of education for family living, consumer economics, job information, physical and emotional health, training for world citizenship and statesmanship, and last—and, we're afraid, least—training in fundamentals. These 'life adjustment' courses are little more than juvenile bull sessions with emphasis on the group which stifles genuine individuality. Dewey has been confuted and our youth cheated."

Q. "But isn't self-realization a worthwhile goal for education?"

A. "Of course, but knowledge and information are the material with which we think—they are basic to self-realization. The trouble with the educationists is that they regard any subject, from personal grooming to philosophy, as equally important or interchangeable in furthering the process of self-realization. This anarchy of values has led to the displacement of established disciplines of science and the humanities by these new subjects."

* * * * *

Training people how to think has always been a goal of education and it still is or should be. But, perhaps we need to define what is meant by the phrase. Mr. Cousin's editorial certainly implied that a great many of our college-trained professional people—who can think well in their own fields—do not know how to

think well or behave intelligently in other areas of human concern. How many good thinkers are there who are incompetent in such fields as practical politics, getting along with their employers and co-workers, and getting along with members of their families?

Even if we accept Dr. Bestor's thesis, that we should place renewed emphasis on intellectual training, it can be done only for those who have the ability and the active will to take such training. There are considerable differences in both the nature and function of education between what they were 50-75 years ago and what they are today. In the past, going to school was a privilege, and therefore, receiving an education constituted a voluntary endeavor. Today, going to school, although we like to have students regard it as a privilege, is considered by many as an unpleasant compulsory chore. Another difference is that, in the past, education's chief function was training for leadership, whereas today, it is leadership training only for some, and training for fellowship for the vast majority of boys and girls. Years ago, the home and the world of work had the major responsibility in the socialization process of our young people—developing in them the social attributes and skills which had to do with making a living and getting along with people. Today, this responsibility, to a large extent, has been taken out of the hands of the home and the world of work and placed in the lap of the school. Education for living and not merely training the intellect is the responsibility of today's school. And such education must include those areas of living which concern the individual's adjustment to himself, to his family, to the world of work, to people and to his community.

HUMAN BEHAVIOR AND SOCIAL LIVING

A Course Outline in Lesson Form

for

High School Students

LESSON 3

TO ACQUIRE AN UNDERSTANDING OF
THE IMPORTANCE OF HEREDITY IN
PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Beginning the Lesson

A. Have students complete the following chart:

MY PERSONALITY—WHERE IT CAME FROM		
Place a check (✓) in appropriate column		
	Heredity	Environment*
Body build		
Facial features		
Health		
Color hair, eyes		
Intelligence		
Special interests (sports, music, art)		
Emotional tendencies (tendency to be angry, afraid, shy)		
Truthfulness		
Aggressiveness		
Shyness		

* Result of learning and experience.

B. Follow with class discussion leading to consideration of the lesson objective.

Words and Concepts We Need To Know and Understand

Acquired characteristics: Traits that are not hereditary, but developed because of environmental conditions.

Examples: Ability to speak foreign languages; ability to swim; trustworthiness; cruelty.

Chromosomes: Small definitely shaped bodies located in the nucleus of the germ cell. They contain the genes which are believed to be the carriers of hereditary traits.

Congenital traits: Non-hereditary traits that develop during the pre-natal (before birth) period.

Cretinism: A type of feeble-mindedness or arrested physical and mental development in children due to a deficient secretion of the thyroid gland.

Cross breeding: The fertilization or mating of two different varieties of plants or animals.

Dominant traits: Characteristics which tend to perpetuate themselves.

Eugenics: The science concerned with improving the human race by controlling reproductive mating.

Feeble-mindedness: A condition of mental deficiency or lack of intelligence necessary for normal adaptation to everyday living. There are varying levels or degrees of feeble-mindedness, ranging from idiocy to a condition just below normal intelligence.

Genes: Beadlike structures believed to be the carriers of hereditary characteristics.

Genetics: The science of heredity; the study of how traits are transmitted by parents to offspring.

Genetic counselor: A specialist in human genetics who may be consulted on questions pertaining to the transmission of hereditary characteristics.

Germ cell (gamete): Reproductive cell.

Hare lip: A malformed upper lip, having a cleft in it like the lip of a hare.

Idiocy: The lowest form of feeble-mindedness. In the extreme, a person who is an idiot may be physically full grown but with no more intelligence than an infant. An idiot must be cared for by others because he cannot take care of his own personal needs.

Mongolian idiocy: A type of feeble-mindedness in children characterized by Mongolian features and a pleasant disposition. The cause for this mental deficiency has not yet been discovered.

Ovum: Female reproductive cell.

Recessive traits: Characteristics that tend to disappear or remain hidden unless both genes are recessive.

Sperm (Spermatazoon): Male reproductive cell.

Zygote: The ovum after it has been fertilized by the sperm.

THINGS To Do

A. Answer the Following Questions

1. What would be responsible for similar traits in identical twins? dissimilar traits?
2. What traits in yourself can you definitely trace to your mother's or father's side of your family?
3. What chances (if any) may first cousins take if they should marry and have children?
4. Which is more important in personality development, heredity or environment?
5. What are the principal characteristics that may be transmitted through heredity?

B. Projects and Reports

1. Check with the *Readers Guide for Periodic Literature* on articles dealing with such topics as *Genetic Counseling*, *Eugenics* and *animal breeding*. Report to the class on your readings.
2. Draw a diagram showing how recessive genes are transmitted.
3. Individual reports.
 - a. Hemophilia
 - b. Studies about identical twins
 - c. Mongolian idiocy
 - d. Cretinism
 - e. Feeble-mindedness
 - f. Intelligence
 - g. Mendelian laws of heredity

C. What to Read

Crow, Lester D., and Alice Crow, *Learning to Live with Others*. Chapter v: Why personalities differ.

Huntington, Ellsworth, *Tomorrow's Children*.

Jordan, Helen Mougey, *You and Marriage*. Chapter xii: What do we inherit?

Keliner, Alice V., *Life and Growth*. Chapter v: Heredity's part in human progress.

Scheinfeld, Amram, *You and Heredity*.

Smith, Ella Thea, *Exploring Biology*. Problems 25-26: Heredity and human life.

Sorensen, Herbert, and Marguerite Malm, *Psychology for Living*. Chapter ii: What you are born with and what you acquire.

¹ United States News and World Report, October 7, 1955.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

Two of the outstanding educational program series in television, "You Are There" and "The Search," will be made available for private showings to schools, public libraries, community groups and religious, civic, business and industrial organizations throughout the country, as a result of a distribution agreement between CBS Television and Young America Films, Inc. Twenty-six of the "You Are There" programs and all "The Search" programs will be available for distribution this Fall.

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FILMS

Kenya Vista. 16 min. Sound. B&W. Sale or Rental. Fleetwood Films, Inc., 10 Fiske Pl., Mt. Vernon, N. Y.

Shows the wild bush country along the coast, the big game in Tsavo National Park, the

Gigiani tribe, and the kraal and huts of the Wacomba tribe.

East Africa. 20 min. Sound. Color. Sale. Paul Hoefer Productions, 7934 Santa Monica Blvd., Los Angeles, Calif.

Scenes of the country, animals, people, industry, etc., in Kenya, Tanganyika, and Uganda.

Peoples of the Soviet Union. 22 min. Sound. B&W. Sale. Text-film Div., 330 W. 42 St., New York 36, N. Y.

Depicts life, customs, and occupations in Russia today.

Down the Dalmatian Coast. 10 min. Sound. Color. Sale or Rental. Yugoslavia Information Center, 816 Fifth Ave., New York 21, N. Y.

A panoramic sweep of life along a historic coast line.

Mediterranean Africa. 12 min. Sound. Color. Sale or Rental. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill.

A historical and geographic survey of Tunisia, Algeria, and Morocco.

Desert Nomads—French Morocco. Earth and Its People Series. 20 min. Sound. B&W. Sale.

United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y.

Tribes of Nomads wander in search of grass for their animals, but always return to the oasis to exchange their products for agricultural crops.

Rise of Nations in Europe. 1½ reels. Sound.

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The pattern of national evolution is observed in France as representative of those European states which developed from feudal beginnings to highly centralized states of the 17th Century. *Colonial Expansion of European Nations.* 1½ reels, Sound. B&W. or Color. Sale or Rental. Coronet Films, Inc.

Depicts the exciting experience of the period of colonial expansion.

Neighbors. 9 min. Color. Sale or Rental. International Film Bureau, Inc., 57 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill.

The story about two people, who after living side by side with mutual friendliness and respect, come to blows over the possession of a flower that one day grows on the line where their properties meet.

FILMSTRIPS

Desert Nomads—French Morocco. 54 fr. Sale. United World Films, Inc.

Shows nomads in their search for food and living quarters.

A Trip to Nairobi. 20 fr. Sale. Visual Education Consultants, Inc., 2066 Helena St., Madison 4, Wisc.

A view of life in Nairobi.

Russia. 55 fr. Sale. Informative Classroom Pictures Publishing Co., 40 Ionia Ave., Grand Rapids 2, Mich.

Reviews conditions in Russia today.

Yugoslavia Today. 65 fr. Free-loan. Audio-Visual Associates, Box 243, Bronxville, N. Y.

A survey of the country including its history, geography, form of government, industries, resources, foreign relations, etc.

Yugoslavia. 72 fr. Sale. Life Filmstrips, 9 Rockefeller Pl., New York 20, N. Y.

Historical background of the country followed by scenes of the land and the people before World War II, and the rise of Tito with the development of the new nation.

Sweden—Today. 84 fr. Sale. Pictorial Events, 597-5 Ave., New York 17, N. Y.

Shows the palace at Stockholm; ceremonies aboard the royal "Vasaorden" with King Gustav V; activities at ports; market places; rural sections of Sweden; life, customs, and costumes; transportation; young men hoisting barley on hay stacks.

Challenge by China. 53 fr. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, *The N. Y. Times*, Times Sq., New York 36, N. Y.

It traces China's recent history of aggression in the Far East. The tensions created by Communist policy toward Formosa and other Asian areas are outlined. This is set against a background of China's economic and population problems and the Western nations impact on China during the last century.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

The People Govern. By Laurence G. Paquin and Marian D. Irish. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1954. Pp. viii, 598. \$4.00.

In this attractive text for high school classes in civics, American government, and problems of democracy a Director of Secondary Education and a political scientist have collaborated with successful results. Outstanding features of the book are the multitude of pictures, charts,

and maps, and the teaching aids which are included at the end of each chapter. The textual material is generally adequate. The discussions of the nature of democracy, the American economic system, and the ways in which the American government promotes the general welfare are particularly interesting. Less satisfactory are the chapters on the United States in world affairs, which are neither very informative nor

well-balanced. As is common in texts of this kind, state and local governments are badly neglected. Only two of the thirty-three chapters are concerned with state governments, and only one is devoted to local governments, which comprise nearly 116,000 units. On the whole, however, this is a wholesome and interesting treatment of an important subject. It should be popular with high school students and teachers.

NORMAN D. PALMER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Rainbow Book of American History. By Earl Schenck Miers. Illustrated by James Daugherty. Cleveland, Ohio: World Publishing Co., 1955. Pp. 319. \$4.95.

American history is filled with wonderful stories; moments of great bravery, self-sacrifice and loyalty, people who have helped to build our wonderful country, times of crisis and uncertainty; and always, running through our past like a rainbow warp in a magic carpet, the striving for freedom, for something richer and finer for each succeeding generation. It is with danger, crisis and dreams, golden moments and the people who made them, that Mr. Miers is here concerned. He has chosen fifty of them, from Lief Ericson to the lone plane over Hiroshima on August 6, 1945, and has described them in dramatic and colorful prose. Often he uses the words of participants, not quoting them by the yard but weaving them skilfully into his narrative.

James Daugherty has illustrated the book with more than 200 drawings, most of them in color. They are bold, unconventional and exciting—well calculated to stir the blood of boys and girls. Written so that it can be read by junior high youngsters, teachers will find it admirably suited to slow readers in the senior high. Adults, also, will find this a thrilling and exciting book.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

State University of New York
Teachers College, Cortland, New York

American Society. By Luke Ebersole. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955. Pp. x, 510. \$5.50.

The professed aim of this volume, according to the author, is to have it used "for courses

in introductory sociology and general social science." And "it is hoped that it will be useful also in courses in the field of American studies." In order to accomplish this, "the focus of attention is on American society rather than on concepts as such. Principles and concepts are stated, but their inclusion is always determined by their usefulness in describing and analyzing particular data." Altogether five parts cover People, Communities, Classes, Institutions and "American Society in Process."

The publication belongs to the growing number of textbooks which, in order to compete with the established works covering definite academic areas must, under one pretense or another, justify their appearance. The results of such endeavors are more than glaring here. The presentation labors at a target which, after all, is relatively inconsequential. The combination of sociological principles with the presentation of social problems has been tried in numerous other texts. Nothing new emerges from the treatment and the author gives the impression that he knows more than he does, and is naive enough to include many points that can be found in any encyclopaedic article; at the same time, although he is obviously a sociologist, his "Selected References" show how ignorant he is of many well-known specific studies of his specific topics. (Even such classic analysts of "American Society" as André Siegfried or de Tocqueville have been consigned to utter oblivion.)

All in all, on page 7 Ebersole cites 8 references using the same approach and the same subject as his book. Sorry to report that Ebersole will have to go a long way before attaining the level of his predecessors.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

Modern Philosophies and Education. By Nelson B. Henry, Ed. Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1955. Pp. x, 374, i-vi, \$3.25.

Notice that this volume presents men from general philosophy (while in 1942 part of the 41st Yearbook of the National Society for the Education presented *Philosophies of Education* by the currently most prominent philosophers of education). "In the field of general philosophy there are not only more varieties of

opinion than in the more limited field of education, but there are also a number of prominent philosophers whose views on education, if once worked out from their author's philosophical premises, may very well provide fresh insights into educational problems" (p. 1). Not all prominent philosophers write here — of course — but the selection has been rather good, presenting the following topics and authors: The Challenge to Philosophies about Education, by John S. Brubacher; Education and Human Society: A Realistic View, by John Wild; Thomist Views on Education, by Jacques Maritain; A Liberal Christian Idealistic Philosophy of Education, by Theodore M. Greene; An Experimentalist Approach to Education, by George R. Geiger; The Marxist Philosophy of Education, by Robert S. Cohen; Significance of Existence and Recognition for Education, by Ralph Harper; Linguistic Approach to Problems of Education, by Kenneth Burke; Aims of Education for our Age of Science: Reflections of a Logical Empiricist, by Herbert Feigl; An Ontological Philosophy of Education, by James K. Feibleman.

Such a collection of readings is of extreme value to the educator. But it is not without its unexpected and glaring weaknesses. Those not specializing in this field, will be more confused than enlightened when studying the volume, for the treatment does not have the contributors address themselves to any common set of problems. (A chapter outlining the main fields of philosophy interested in education would certainly help out.) It is difficult to compare different chapters at specific points, although notable differences occur between chapters. It is true that each author promised to include in each chapter the following six topics: (1) the general philosophical orientation; (2) aims, values, and curriculum; (3) the educative process, its methods, motivation, and the like; (4) school and society; (5) the school and the individual; and (6) religious and moral education. But each author has tended to bring a different degree of emphasis on each sub-section. Some chapters conclude with fine bibliographies; others did not even bother to include any bibliographical or footnote references.

In general, the treatment needed a more systematic and synthetic presentation, if the

work is designed for the average student of education. As the publication stands now, it is merely a useful collection of readings on selected philosophical aspects of education.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

The Soviet Regime. By W. W. Kulski. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1954. Pp. xiv, 807. \$8.00.

This work is a substantial and impressive contribution to the growing number of first-class books on the Soviet Union. The author, a former Polish citizen, now Professor at Syracuse University, has written a hard-hitting, though always scholarly volume on the government of the Soviet Union and on Soviet life in general. This is a work on Russian government in a broad, not in a narrow sense of the word. Yet the approach of the author needs hardly a justification in the case of the Soviet government, which, being totalitarian, encompasses and determines the economic, social, and cultural life of the entire population, of the Russian nation and the non-Russian nationalities. While Kulski's study is merely one of the Soviet Russian government, the author holds that the "basic anatomy of totalitarianism is the same whether its name is Communism, Nazism, or Fascism, or whatever might be its future name" (7).

Part I of the book is entitled "Cultural Isolation and Conformity of the Educated Man," Part II "The Citizen and the State," Part III "The Worker and Social Stratification," Part IV "The Peasant and Collective Planning," and Part V deals with "The Post-Stalinist Era." There is, as also these Contents indicate, considerable emphasis placed in this book upon the intellectual and moral climate and the cultural trends of Soviet Russia, and upon the social-economic divisions and problems of present-day Russian society. The author, focusing his attention on these matters, has perhaps given less space to the Communist Party and the Soviets than is given to these institutions in such works on the Soviet government as those by Julian Towster and Merle Fainsod, but the treatment is adequate.

This comprehensive work rests on sources

both numerous and significant, and the skillful combination of text and source material, which gives the book its unique character, should prove of special usefulness for the beginning student of Russian government as well as for the advanced one. The author made it a point to let the Communist Party, Soviet administrators and "legislators," and authors speak for themselves.

The termination of the Stalin worship by Russia's present rulers immediately after Stalin's death, linked with the stress on the concept of collective leadership, is believed to signify merely the shedding of a semi-divine cult and not the beginning of a serious criticism of Stalin and his policies. Russia's top-men of today owe their very positions to Stalin who selected them as his closest advisers and collaborators. In the long run the Communist Party of Soviet Russia "cannot afford to disregard openly the heritage of its two great leaders" (682), of Lenin and Stalin.

The author expresses the hope that his book "will find its way to the young generation whose age warrants a search for the better world. They should avoid the pitfall of believing that a better world is being built in the Soviet Union." The book appears to this reviewer admirably suited to this purpose. The clear, straightforward style and the forceful conclusions, drawn after careful and objective analysis of the facts presented and based upon rich evidence, should help to bring information and clarity to the mind of many a reader.

ALFRED D. LOW

Marietta College
Marietta, Ohio

The American Government: Democracy in Action. By Charles E. Merriam and Robert E. Merriam. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1954. Pp. xi, 944. \$6.25.

The late Charles E. Merriam was one of the wisest and most perceptive of American political scientists. He made particularly significant contributions to an understanding of American political processes and behavior. Robert E. Merriam has followed in his father's footsteps. Both Merriams had extensive practical experience in local and state government. Out of their wisdom and experience they produced an out-

standing college text in American government. To them government "is a real and dynamic process" and American government is "an organic whole," even though it is "a plural story of more than 116,000 governments."

The distinctive feature of this text is its emphasis on state and local government and on political dynamics and processes. The first topic to be treated in detail is the American political system. No fewer than nine chapters are devoted to state governments, which are presented as the central part of the American governmental system. Five chapters deal with local government. Three of these describe the governments of cities, with which the Merriams were most familiar, but due attention is given to rural local governments — "the forgotten half." The national government is not described in detail until the section of nine chapters beginning with Chapter 22. The treatment of the role of government in social welfare, the relations of government and business, labor, and the farmers, and problems of conservation is particularly full and satisfying. Three of the chapters in the section entitled "The United States in World Affairs" are rather conventional and not enough attention is given to interdepartmental agencies for the coordination of foreign policy, notably the National Security Council; but the fourth chapter in this section, on "The Role of the Military in the Civilian Government," is timely and challenging. Four chapters discuss the rights, liberties, and obligations of American citizens.

The text is well-written and amply illustrated. It is attractive in appearance and refreshingly different in presentation.

NORMAN D. PALMER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

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BOOK NOTES

America Is My Country. By Harriett M. Brown and Joseph F. Guadagnolo. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955. Pp. x, 268. \$2.88.

This is one of the finest texts in American History for Junior High School students that has been written in recent years. The information in this text is presented in such an inter-

esting manner that it should hold the student's interest at all times.

The pictures and illustrations are well chosen and should add enthusiasm to the study of American History.

A Dozen Captains of American Industry. By Walter Wilson Jennings. New York: Vantage Press, Incorporated, 1955. Pp. 229, \$2.50.

Here we have a reference book which teachers of the Social Studies, and Librarians should be glad to have in their possession. This text contains the life history and work of twelve American leaders of finance, invention, engineering, manufacturing, and business enterprise, whose activities span more than a century of the nation's industrial and commercial development.

This is a highly informative book, and a reminder of the heartaches and setbacks men overcame to introduce into the world the commonplace things of daily use.

PAMPHLETS

To Make a Free World. An exploration of a new Foreign Policy. By Stephen Raushenbush and Dewey Anderson. Public Affairs Institute, 312 Pennsylvania Avenue SE, Washington, D. C. Price .25 cents.

Germany at a Glance. Facts on Germany, 1954. Free: Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

Adventures in India. World Youth, Inc., Quito Road, Los Gatos, California. Price .20 cents.

ARTICLES

"The Sins of Contemporary Education," by C. Page Smith. *Educational Research Bulletin*, Volume xxxiii, November 1954.

"Cooperative Curriculum Development," by Stephen Corey. *The Educational Courier*, Volume xxv, December 1954.

"School Administration Today," by Francis S. Chase. *The School Executive*, Volume lxxiv, January 1955.

"A Sacred Trust," by Ruth M. Adams. *Arizona Teacher*, Volume xlili, December 1954.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Analytical Sociology: Social Situations and Social Problems. By Lowell J. Carr. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955. Pp. Book 1 xiv, 301. Book 2 xiv, 400. \$7.00.

The Family as Process and Institutions. By

Clifford Keippatrick. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1955. Pp. xxiii, 649. \$6.00.

The Armenian Community. By Sarkis Atamian. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. 479. \$4.75.

Education and Responsibility. By Tunis Romein. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky Press, 1955. Pp. iv, 207. \$3.50.

Handbook of Parliamentary Procedure. By Henry A. Davidson. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1955. Pp. xvii, 292. \$3.75.

American Heroes, Myth and Reality. By Marshall W. Fishwick. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1955. Pp. xv, 242. \$3.75.

Yearbook on Human Rights for 1952. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. Pp. 490. \$5.00.

The Dignity of the Human Person. By Edward P. Cronan. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. v, 207. \$3.00.

The American Adventure. By Bertraud M. Wainger. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1955. Pp. xxxii, 726. \$4.20.

A History of the United States Since the 1890's. By Arthur S. Link. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Incorporated, 1955. Pp. xxix, 724. \$6.00.

Andrew Jackson, Symbol for an Age. By John William Ward. New York: Oxford University Press, 1955. Pp. xi, 274. \$4.75.

Forbidden Lands. By Gordon Cooper. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. xii, 164. \$4.75.

Politics and Science. By William Esslinger. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. xiii, 167. \$3.00.

This World of Ours. By Abram Glaser. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. xii, 492. \$5.00.

The Making of the Modern World. By Richard M. Brace. From the Renaissance to the Present. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1955. Pp. xxxvi, 899. \$6.50.

United States History. Revised Edition. Fremont P. Wirth. New York: American Book Company, 1955. Pp. xi, 734. \$4.40.

History and the Social Web. A collection of essays. By August C. Krey. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1955. Pp. xii, 269. \$4.00.

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